

**CRITICAL LISTENING EFFECTIVENESS IN ADULT LEARNERS
IN A SECOND LANGUAGE SPANISH PROGRAM**

Doctoral Dissertation Research

Submitted to the
Faculty of Argosy University, San Francisco Bay Area
College of Education

In Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

by

Tanya de Hoyos Carbajal

April 2014

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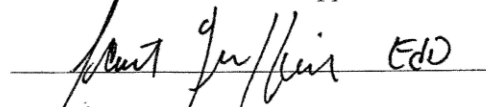
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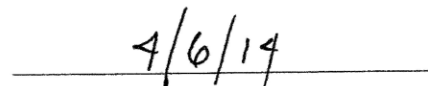
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ABSTRACT

Critical listening effectiveness is vital for foreign language students; they need to use critical thinking to interpret different type of messages. A way to help students enhance their listening in a foreign language may be to (a) first identify their listening styles and the listening effectiveness skills they use when listening and (b) then provide feedback on their listening styles and effectiveness. This descriptive quantitative research study was based on a dual-process theory framework, comprising the perceived listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness that second language adult learners of Spanish use when listening; the relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness from the listening styles inventory (LSI) and listening effectiveness from the HURIER questionnaire; and the relationship between scores on the DLPT5, a lower-range listening comprehension test and scores on the LSI and the HURIER. The study population consisted of students ($N = 52$) from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center. This research revealed that all the student respondents believe they are good listeners and that almost half of them use involved listening behavior when listening. There was a strong positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness and effectiveness. The study compared the relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (LSI), listening effectiveness (HURIER), and listening comprehension (DLPT5); findings show no or negligible significance between the listening styles/effectiveness scores, the listening effectiveness scores, and the comprehension scores.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my dissertation chair, Dr. Scott Griffith, for his invaluable support and guidance. His crystal clear insights improved this work and contributed to my professional advancement. I am also thankful for the help of Dr. Ana Lomas, who took the time to thoroughly review my research and help me formulate ideas throughout the process. Thank you to the people at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center—Dr. Deanna Tovar, Dr. Raúl Cucalón, Dr. Gordon Jackson, and other administrators and staff who supported me throughout the doctoral program. Most importantly I thank the students in the Defense Language Institute; I couldn't have done it without you!

My deepest appreciation goes to my family—to my husband, Luis, my “rock,” for his unflagging support and encouragement, and to my sons, Zaídy and Aldo, for believing in me and cheering me on. I am much obliged to Dr. Doron Friedman, who put the wheels in motion by first suggesting that I participate in the doctoral program and then pushing me until I crossed the finish line.

Thank you, one and all.

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to all students learning a second language who want to improve their listening skills. It was undertaken with the hope that all educators will offer what is needed for foreign language students to succeed in their classes through critical listening. This project is also dedicated to those who have sustained me throughout my journey: my husband, Luis Manuel Martínez Alzamora, who loved me through thick and thin despite the twists and turns of the doctoral journey, and my two sons, Zaídy Elí Sédiz and Aldo Eliud González de Hoyos, who gave me the strength and support I needed to make my dream come true.

CHAPTER ONE: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

The average person spends seven out of every ten waking minutes in language communication. Of those seven minutes (70% of the time), listening takes up 40–50%; speaking 25–30%; reading 11–16%; and writing about 9% (Mendelsohn, 1994). “Beginning–level L2 (second language) listeners...have limited linguistic knowledge; therefore, little of what they hear can be automatically processed....Listeners need to interpret what they hear” (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 192). “Misunderstandings, on the other hand, occur when a receiver actually connects incoming information with stored information but where the resulting meaningful connection must be viewed as inadequate or incorrect” (Allwood and Abelar, 1984, p. 2).

Erik Rasmussen (2008) described the Spanish immersion he experienced in England when he moved there to live with his roommate Marga. Erik met Marga's friend Majo (short for María José) and subsequently heard the name Majo numerous times whenever Marga was conversing with other Spaniards. Erik inferred that they were talking obsessively about her friend Majo all the time! Later he found out that the word *majo* is Spanish slang, meaning that someone is nice, nice-looking, good-looking, and it is also a generic name for male friend. “A misunderstanding, therefore, does not only affect an individual as a receiver but can potentially also influence him in the sender role and thereby have consequences for those whom he is communicating with” (Allwood and Abelar, 1984, p. 1).

Over the past few decades, world events have increasingly brought to the forefront the need for critical listening effectiveness in second language usage (Larson,

2010). This is because second language listeners may be “exposed to many kinds of messages...but it isn’t always clear how to separate the truth from the messages that are misleading or even blatantly false” (Wrench, Goding, Johnson, and Attias, 2011, p. 1). Military linguists need effective listening (see *Effective Listening, Definition of Terms*) to avoid conflict and misunderstanding, thus improving mission performance (Anderson, 2000). “Skills of effective listening are vital to individuals’ professional and personal well being” (Wolvin, 2010, p. 141).

Critical listening (see *Critical Listening, Definition of Terms*)—utilized for listening effectiveness—relies on critical thinking; a person needs to be able to think critically in order to listen effectively (Thompson, 1957). Lacking critical thinking, people may be prone to premature evaluation; they may be apt to pass judgment too quickly on a listening message before understanding it (Wolvin, 2009). The listener must apply caution, systematic thinking, and reasoning to perceive whether a speaker’s message makes sense, and then be able to support this understanding with evidence (Wrench et al., 2011).

Listening is “the most enigmatic of the skills, knowable only by inference, which is a key both to its difficulty and to its allure” (Boyd, 2005, p. 1). Listening occurs when students are engaged. It is a process by which various types of knowledge are activated. Listeners apply what they know to what they hear as they try to understand what the speaker means (Anderson and Lynch, 1988).

During the Spanish Basic Program at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), students are required to understand and interpret real-life

situations in the target language. As part of the Spanish program, for example, DLIFLC offers immersion:

foreign language training conducted in total isolation from the English language...and conducted off post exclusively in the target language. This event is intended to simulate real life situations and offer students the opportunity to apply their language skills while also experiencing the target culture. (Defense Language Institute, 2013b, Isolation–immersion program, para. 1)

Poor listening is the number one problem of organizations, according to chief executive officers and chief operating officers of both large and small companies (Kline, 1996), whereas good listening is required in almost all professional endeavors. “The listener is carrying 80% of the responsibility for effective communication” (Brownell, 2013, p. 5). One way to help students enhance listening in a foreign language may be to identify their listening styles and the listening effectiveness skills they use when listening, and then to provide feedback on their listening styles and effectiveness.

Two instruments were used to identify students’ listening styles and to measure their listening effectiveness: the LSI (Listening Styles Inventory), which defines listening styles/listening effectiveness, and the HURIER (Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, Responding), which measures listening effectiveness. Computed correlations between the LSI, the HURIER, and the DLPT5 (see *Defense Language Proficiency Test, Spanish [2007 series], Definition of Terms*) served to explore relationships among these instruments.

Background

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is a center of schools for foreign language instruction operated by the Department of Defense (DoD). The DLIFLC mission is to provide “culturally–based foreign language education,

training, evaluation, research, and sustainment for DoD personnel to ensure the success of the Defense Language Program and enhance the security of the nation” (Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, 2013b, p. ii). The core mission is language acquisition. DLIFLC students spend five days a week, seven hours a day in training, with two to three hours of homework each night. The Institute provides resident instruction in eight separate language schools and 24 languages at the Presidio of Monterey, delivering one of the world’s best educations in learning a foreign language. All students attending DLIFLC are members of the Armed Forces or are sponsored by a government agency (Defense Language Institute, 2013a).

The mission of the DLIFLC’s undergraduate education program is to provide excellence in foreign language education and assessment. The individual language programs range in length from 26 to 64 weeks, depending on the difficulty of the language. Students are expected to reach the same levels of proficiency in listening, reading, and speaking (Defense Language Institute, 2013a), regardless of the difficulty of the language.

The European and Latin American School (UEL) is one of the eight DLIFLC schools at the Presidio of Monterey, California. Students at DLIFLC must be involved in critical listening as an important component of second language acquisition (Goss, 1982). The listener needs to address cognitive strategies involving deductive reasoning (critical listening) when making inferences, judgments, and evaluations of speakers and messages (Oxford, 1990).

Second language students need to develop the skill of listening comprehension to (a) be more effective listeners and (b) learn more from conversations by concentrating, making a conscious effort while listening (Thomas, 2000). “Effective listening (see *Listening effectiveness, Definition of Terms*) provides the students with valuable long-term benefits: competence, confidence, and productivity in their academic, personal, and professional lives” (Thompson, Leintz, Nevers, and Witkowski, 2004, p. 239).

Conceptual Foundation

Dual-process theory, the conceptual framework for this research—comprising the elaboration likelihood model (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981), the heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken, 1980), and attitude change theory (Hovland, Janis and Kelley, 1953)—has its historical roots in the writings of William James and Sigmund Freud. Dual theories began with “Freud and other psychoanalysts [who] introduced the world to the notion of an unconscious mind motivating our behavior with a combination of innate drives and repressed emotions as well as a conscious mind prone to rationalization and self-deception” (Evans, 2008, p. 258). Some may even argue that dual-process theory goes back to ancient times, when Plato claimed that the soul was divided into three parts: *reason, spirit, and appetite*.

William James believed that “reasoning takes the form of two different modes of thought. James regarded reasoning as an experiential associative type of thinking, as well as a separate analytical deliberate mode” (Osman, 2004, p. 1). James considered that associative thinking comes from our store of past experiences, describing it as “only

reproductive,” and that the analytical mode was used for “unprecedented situations,” which required “true reasoning.”

Freud held that the human mind is composed of two systems: one conscious, the other unconscious. He held that these systems operate in different modes—*primary process* and *secondary process*—the former, associative, and the latter logical. He also held that the contents of the unconscious were inaccessible to the conscious mind and that the unconscious system was a source of motivation and mental conflict. Most modern dual-process theorists agree with these tenets” (Frankish, 2010, p. 915).

Dual-system theories are based on the hypothesis that mental development is dependent on social judgments and behavior, which can function either automatically or in a managed process (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011). These theories have various names: heuristic-systematic (Chen and Chaiken, 1980), heuristic-analytic (Evans, 1989), implicit-explicit (Reber, 1993; Evans and Over, 1996), experimental-rational (Epstein, 1994), associative and rule-based (Sloman, 1996), and neutral system 1 and system 2 (Stanovich, 1999).

Scientific theories are specific organizing frameworks that provide in-depth understanding and make arguments for specific relationships among constructs. These theories are not simply useful or heuristic, but describe and explain how and why things work as found in nature or in social life.
(Bodie, 2009, pp. 83–84)

“Theories positing dual cognitive systems have become popular in cognitive and social psychology” (Evans, 2006, p. 202). Such theories “provide an excellent organizing framework for explaining when and why certain variables impact our tendency to attend to and process...persuasive communication” (Bodie, 2009, p. 96). They are “rapid, automatic and effortless on one hand [and] are contrasted with those that are slow, sequential and controlled on the other” (Evans, 2006, p. 202).

During the 1960s, Reber developed implicit learning techniques for conscious and independent learning in the absence of explicit knowledge (Frankish, 2010). “A two–system framework was presented in Reber’s work on implicit learning....Reber was one of the first to propose key elements of the two–system approach” (p. 919). “Higher–order cognitive processes are often described by dual–process models that distinguish between systematic [deliberate, top–down, explicit, conscious] and heuristic [automatic, bottom–up, implicit, unconscious] processing” (Reimer, Mata, Katsikopoulos, and Opwis, n.d., p. 1833). The two cognitive strategies used in second language listening research are *bottom–up*, which includes verbatim translation, rate of speech, oral text, prosodic features, and *top–down*, which includes predicting, inference, elaborating and visualization (Vandergrift, 2002). Advanced learners employ more top–down strategies than beginners (Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). Cognitive strategies involve manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). Second language learners use cognitive strategies to help process, store, and recall new information (Goh, 1998).

Attitude change and formulation are examined to analyze how people react to persuasive messages as arguments; this is the basis of the dual–process theory of persuasion (Frankish, 2010). Dual–process theories originated in the 1980s (Chaiken, 1980; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). The heuristic systematic model (HSM) and the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) elucidate differences in the impact of source, receiver, and environmental variables on the outcomes of persuasive messages depending on the amount of systematic thinking that people do when listening to persuasive information (Larson, 2010). “Systematic processing entails a relatively analytic and

comprehensive treatment of judgment relevant information...cognitive ability and capacity” (Chen and Chaiken, 1999, p.74).

The developer and main researcher of the HSM was social psychologist Dr. Shelly Chaiken (1980). Some years later, HSM was further developed by Chaiken with a colleague (Eagly and Chaiken, 1995). In 1980 and 1987, the researcher identified the two methods of heuristic and systematic processing (Chaiken, 1980). In 1989, the model was expanded to specify the psychological conditions for triggering authentic and desired subjective confidence (Chaiken, Liberman and Eagly, 1989). “Research on persuasion generally assumes that people are accuracy motivated...the HSM was based on this assumption” (Dillard and Pfau, 2002, p. 201). HSM “holds that individuals will use one or both of these [heuristic and systematic processing] modes of information in order to arrive at a judgment” (Trumbo, 1999, p. 391). It upholds the tenet that persuasion has been “mediated by the recipients’ understanding and cognitive elaboration of persuasive argumentation” (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p. 327). Heuristic processing involves analytical rules and requires minimum cognitive demands on the perceiver (Evans, 2008). It is a multi-stage process during which information is gained from foundation knowledge, argument quality, and heuristic capabilities (Reimer, Mata, and Stoecklin, 2004). “These models...[describe] the conditions under which different aspects of a persuasive message [strength of arguments, attractiveness of the source] influence the effectiveness of persuasive appeals” (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011, p. 2).

“The Elaboration Likelihood Model [ELM] views persuasion primarily as a cognitive event, meaning that the targets of persuasive messages use mental processes of

motivation and reasoning [or a lack thereof] to accept or reject persuasive messages” (Dainton and Zelley, 2011, p. 10). Petty and Cacioppo created the ELM in 1986, focusing on centrally and peripherally routed messages that emphasize the importance of the audience understanding a persuasive message (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986).

Attitude change theory was explored by Thomas and Znaniecki (1918), researchers of attitude formulation. Thomas is known for the Thomas Theorem of Sociology (1928): *“If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences”* (Thomas and Thomas, 1929, p. 572). Watson (2009) defined social psychology as the scientific study of attitudes. Theory of attitudes was focused on conceptual elaboration including questions about definitions, analysis of elements, and differences between attitudes and concepts (McGuire, 1968).

Carl I. Hovland supported Thomas’s studies in surveys and experimental studies conducted by the U.S. Army to assess the impact of morale films and internal propaganda (Gardner, Fiske, and Lindzey, 1998). “Hovland and his colleagues explored a number of communication variables and context variables and examined the effects of these variables on changes in opinions” (Gardner et al., 1998, p. 28). After the Second World War, Hovland began to study persuasion and attitude change at Yale University. For him, the theory of change uses controlled effective communication and varied perspectives of the social phenomenon (Hovland et al., 1953). Three factors are involved in this theory—source, message, and audience (as related to attention, comprehension, and acceptance)—with the focus on resulting opinion change, perception change, affect change, and action change (Hovland and Janis, 1959).

Attitude change theory was developed by “piggy backing” on Hull’s theory of learning, which advances that all motivation arises as a result of biological needs, that behaviors are influenced by goals that seek to satisfy primary drives—hunger, thirst, sex, and the avoidance of pain. The reduction of the drive (satisfying the need) acts as a reinforcement for the behavior, which increases the likelihood that the same behavior recurs when the same need arises.

Hull’s theory and Hovland’s theory have in common the idea that changes in opinion can result in changes in attitude depending on reinforcement. “The effects of source credibility on persuasion found that a speaker of high credibility is more persuasive than a speaker of low credibility” (Heesacker, Petty and Cacioppo, 1983, p. 653). “Effective critical listening requires careful judgment about the expertness and trustworthiness of the speaker...speaker credibility may be the most important factor in critical listening” (Palta, 2007).

Dual-process theory—the heuristic-systematic model, the elaboration likelihood model, and the attitude change theory—can inform critical listening effectiveness for adult learners in second language Spanish course. This study used dual-process theory to examine listening effectiveness. Specifically, the study examined how adult learners in second language of Spanish perceive their critical listening skills.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive research study was to learn which listening styles and effective listening skills second language adult learners of Spanish use while listening to improve their critical listening effectiveness.

Research Questions

RQ1: What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?

RQ2: Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?

RQ3: Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish?

Definition of Terms

Active listening. This is an attentive communication technique that requires a person's willingness to listen, and the ability to hear, pay attention, understand the message, reflect, and withhold judgment (Hoppe, 2006).

Critical listening. This is a form of listening that involves evaluating a message through interpretation and inference (Boyd, 2005).

Defense Language Proficiency Test, Spanish (2007 series). Also known as the DLPT5, it is a set of Spanish language tests to determine language proficiency in reading and listening skills. These tests were developed by the DLIFLC and are currently being used by the Defense Language Institute (2013).

HURIER Listening Survey. It is the framework to understand and develop listening skills. The survey consists of six chronological steps for effective listening:

1. Hearing: involves the physical process of the reception of sounds;

2. Understanding: comprehending what the listener says;
3. Remembering: retaining and storing information for future interaction;
4. Interpreting: emphasizing the message from the other person's perception;
5. Evaluating: separating facts from opinions; and
6. Responding: providing feedback (Brownell, 2013, pp. 12–13).

Listening behavior. This refers to any behavior or action that “involves sensing, attending to, interpreting, remembering, and responding to stimuli [the sounds and speech that we hear]” (Chesebro, 2002, p. 9).

Listening comprehension. This means the ability to comprehend information that is presented orally in a real-time processing message (Flowerdew, 1994).

Listening effectiveness or effective listening. This refers to listening competency; it includes hearing and understanding the information given by a speaker, demonstrating that one is listening and interested, thinking critically, and providing feedback to the speaker (Williams, 2013).

Listening styles. These are the methods by which a person prefers to obtain information while listening, involving attitudes, beliefs, and predispositions to the information received and the encoding process. Listening styles include active, involved, passive, and detached listening (Watson, Barker, and Weaver, 1995).

Listening Styles Inventory (LSI). The LSI is a tool for determining listening effectiveness. Pearce, Johnson and Barker (2003) include four types of listening styles in the LSI questionnaire:

1. Active: “Listeners give full attention to listening when others are talking;”
2. Involved: “They give most of their attention to the speaker's words and intentions;”

3. Passive: “Listeners are usually attentive, although attention may be faked at times;” and
4. Detached: “Listeners withdraw from the speaking–listening exchange and become the object of the speaker’s message rather than the receiver” (Pearce et al., 2003, pp. 86–87).

Significance of the Study

“Listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning, but it is the least understood and the least researched skill” (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 191). There are limited research studies on second language listening. These studies address various aspects of listening such as listening comprehension strategies, listening skills, listening and curriculum development, and listening and hermeneutics. There are some research studies that use the LSI and the HURIER, but none of them are focused on Spanish as a second language. There is not, however, a body of research in the federal government on listening effectiveness. There are neither studies on listening behaviors nor on the relationship between listening styles and listening effectiveness. There has been no study examining the correlation of listening styles and listening effectiveness with scores on the Spanish DLPT5. Consequently, there is a need for critical listening effectiveness studies to investigate the possibility of improving listening comprehension in second language programs through the use of the LSI and the HURIER, which address listening effectiveness.

This research study could be of special interest to government–related instructors who are teaching foreign languages. Results of this study could help teachers to (a) design their classes to improve their students’ active listening and listening effectiveness

and (b) create strategies to help students improve listening behaviors (see *Listening behaviors, Definition of Terms*) and develop critical listening skills.

The significance of this study is that it identified listening behaviors in adult learners of Spanish and explored whether there was a relationship between three variables: listening styles, listening effectiveness, and Spanish listening comprehension DLPT5 scores. Additionally, the study yielded findings that help students improve aspects of their listening comprehension.

Although the information on listening skills obtained in this study was gleaned from DLIFLC students of Spanish, it may provide valuable input to other second language learners at the DLI or at other institutions to help them improve their listening skills.

Students may learn something from simply taking the LSI and the HURIER; the feedback that they receive about their performance on the two instruments may help them improve aspects of their listening comprehension and perform better on the DLPT5. This feedback may (a) facilitate self-awareness, (b) increase listening comprehension, and (c) promote higher achievement.

“Only through effective listening can individuals share meanings and align their behavior to accomplish goals” (Brownell, 2010, p. 141). This study will help future researchers become aware of the significance of listening in foreign language programs.

Limitations

This study utilized surveys for data collection. Possible limitations are that participants (a) may be confused, (b) may fail to pay close attention to a question or

questions, or (c) may interpret the surveys in a different way than intended. The surveys used in this study are self-report; responses are based on the participants' opinions. Participants may present bias because of the social desirability of supporting this study and because of what they perceive the researcher wants to hear. Additional limitations of the study may be attributed to measurement error and nonresponse error. While a broader generalization to all second language learners may not be possible, the findings from this study may be useful to those teaching similar languages to students with similar characteristics.

Delimitations

The study was conducted in the Spanish Language Program of the DLIFLC in Monterey, California. This was a specific study of a single program with a group of DLIFLC students studying Spanish. This research limited the definition of listening styles that individuals use when listening to four main categories—active, involved, passive, and detached—as presented by Pearce et al. (2003). The population and sample of this research included adult learners ranging from 18 to 50 years of age who are United States military service members or government agency employees studying Spanish as a second language.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive research study was to learn which listening styles and effective listening skills second language adult learners of Spanish use while listening to improve their critical listening effectiveness. In this chapter, relevant scholarly literature related to listening behaviors, listening styles, and critical listening effectiveness will be discussed.

This review comprises two sections. The first section is a conceptual foundation about dual-process theories. There are two models and one theory: the elaboration likelihood model (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981), the heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken, 1980), and the attitude change theory (Hovland, Janis and Kelley, 1953). The second section presents literature related to the study.

Section I: Conceptual Foundation

“The lack of focus on developing and testing listening theory is that listening researchers may not fully understand the nature and necessity of theory” (Bodie, 2009, p. 81). Although numerous researchers (Rankin, 1926; Nichols, 1948; Floyd, 1985; Glenn, 1989; Underwood, 1989; Witkin, 1990; Morley, 1991; Brownell, 2013; Stahr, 2009) have attempted to create definitions of listening and listening theory (Glenn, 1989; Witkin and Tochim, 1997), general models of listening are spread out over various discipline-specific literatures, and the assumptions underlying different theoretical perspectives are frequently ignored (Wolvin, 2009; Wolvin, Halone, and Coakley, 1999).

Bodie (2009) asserts that a listening theory is based on two assumptions: “Science describes a way of understanding that is not confined to natural phenomena...and that

provides a systematic understanding of some set of observable facts” (Bodie, 2009, p. 84). The conceptual foundation of this research was based on the dual-process theory of persuasion through the ELM, the HSM and the attitude change theory.

Dual-Process Theory

Dual-process theory focuses on the domain-specific phenomenon that occurs in two different ways or as a result of two different systems (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011). The dual-process theory regarding message persuasion was cited by Chaiken (1980), Petty and Cacioppo (1981) and Hovland et al. (1953).

Numerous theories have been proposed to explain how and why persuasion affects listeners. In some cases, you might be motivated by the need for recognition or approval; on other occasions, you seek peace of mind, or what is called internal consistency. (Brownell, 2013, p. 225)

Theories of persuasion must explain how and why adult learners in a second language program apply critical listening skills, because communication effectiveness is a fundamental component for success (Pearce et al., 2003). “Critical listening allows listeners to analyze the incoming message before accepting or rejecting it” (Bozorgian, 2012, p. 658).

These theories “provide an excellent organizing framework for explaining when and why certain variables impact our tendency to attend to and process (listen to) persuasive communication” (Bodie, 2009, p. 84). Critical listening effectiveness will be reviewed under “persuasion...it refers to all communication that either intentionally or unintentionally influences one’s choices...keeping...emphasis on the co-creation of meaning” (Brownell, 2013, p. 224).

The dual-process theory selected is focused on message persuasion, as presented by Chaiken, 1980; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; and Hovland et al., 1953. Dual-process

theory is important to this study because it provides a “detailed analysis of the processing dynamics” (Bodie, 2009, p. 89) for both persuasive message outcomes and supportive message outcomes.

“The target of persuasive messages uses mental processes of motivation and reasoning (or a lack thereof) to accept or reject persuasive messages” (Dainton and Zelley, 2011, p. 109). “Persuasion implies free choice among alternatives. Your decision is best made rationally, on the basis of clear thinking, sound logic, and valid reasoning” (Brownell, 2013, p. 223). Critical listening effectiveness—determined by a speaker’s credibility, trustworthiness, dynamics, and believability— supports persuasive communication (McCroskey, 1997).

Bodie (2009) appraised the dual–process theory of persuasive message outcomes and summarized that “each explains variation in the impact of source, receiver, and environmental variables on the outcomes of persuasive messages by appealing to the amount of systematic thinking people engage when listening to persuasive information” (p. 89). “Critical listening in this context means using careful, systematic thinking and reasoning to see whether a message makes sense in light of factual evidence” (Wrench et al., 2011, p. 1).

Dual–process theory applies to supportive messages by “processing extensiveness employed by message recipients in a supportive context” (Bodie, 2009, p. 97). Supportive messages of dual–process theory analyze “the consequences that follow from particular levels of processing for changes in affect and behavior, and the varied mechanisms through which changes in affect may occur” (p. 97). “The central tenet of these theories is that the determinants and processes of attitude change depend on

people's motivation and ability to process issue–relevant information” (Wood, 2000, p. 551). “Negotiation skills, such as asking for clarification, repetition, or definition of points not understood, enable a listener to make sense of the incoming information” (Dozer, 1997, p. 1).

Highly engaged or motivated listeners, able to critically assess a message, can usually be persuaded by the quality of the argument “independent of the expertise cue” (Reimer et al., 2004, p. 69). When a listener is receiving significant information, the produced message is resultant of the source, receiver, and environmental variables (Bodie, 2011). Therefore, “when a persuasive message concerns an issue of high personal relevance the effectiveness of the appeal is more a function of the cogency of the arguments presented than of the perceived expertise of the message source” (Reimer et al., 2004, p. 71).

Dual–process theory helps to (a) examine underlying “social judgments and behavior” (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011, p. 1), (b) identify listening in a systematic and organized manner (Bodie, 2008; Gawronski and Creighton, 2011), and (c) accurately detect and interpret a set of phenomena (Berger and Chaffee, 1987). Accordingly, “Critical listening is particularly relevant to persuasive communication situations” (Brownell, 2013, p. 223) and “challenge[s] the speaker’s message by evaluating its accuracy, meaningfulness, and utility” (Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, and Harter, 2008, p. 116), which, in turn, enhances critical listening skills.

Heuristic–systematic model. During the early 1980s, Chaiken (1987) and Eagly and Chaiken (1993) formulated an alternative to the ELM—the HSM—that “delineates two basic modes by which perceivers may determine their attitudes and other social

judgments. Systematic processing entails a relatively analytic and comprehensive treatment of judgment–relevant information” (Chaiken and Trope, 1999, p. 74).

The modes of persuasion can occur simultaneously; sometimes one mode is more dominant and the other less so, yet both are present (Chen, Duckworth, and Chaiken, 1999). A stronger impact on persuasion may result from the systematic approach of values, source reliability, and message content (Chaiken, 1980).

A systematic view of persuasion emphasizes detailed processing of the message content and the role of message–based cognitions in mediating opinion change, whereas a heuristic view de–emphasizes detailed information processing and focuses on the role of simple rules or cognitive heuristics in mediating persuasion. (Chaiken, 1980, p. 752)

“Antecedents to the two processing modes include information sufficiency, motivation, and self–efficacy” (Trumbo, 1999, p. 390).

“Systematic processing is predicted by greater motivation. Heuristic processing is predicted by information sufficiency. Self–efficacy is a significant predictor for both processing modes. And heuristic processing is shown to be associated with judgment of less risk” (p. 391).

Heuristic information processors deliver messages by experts, or messages endorsed by others, without the complete content of the message (Eagly and Chaiken, 1995). “The heuristic–systematic model resides in a collection of persuasion–based models that examine information processing as an antecedent to attitude formation” (Trumbo, 1999, p. 391).

A heuristic–systematic view of persuasion suggests that the message content, or what is perceived by the receiver of the message, relies on judgment–relevant information in order for the listener to respond, comprehend, and evaluate the message’s arguments (Chaiken and Trope, 1999). “Systematic processing actually requires and

consumes cognitive capacity, whereas heuristic processing makes few capacity demands” (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p. 328).

“Motivational variables may have similar effects on systematic and heuristic processing” (Kruglanski and Thompson, 1999, p. 86). “Motivation, in terms of the perceived importance of the situation needing judgment, plays a role in influencing the use of the processing modes” (Trumbo, 1999, p. 392). It also promotes “cognitive effort and implies explicit process” (Dillard and Pfau 2002, p, 206).

“Participants with a low perceived self–expertise apply the expertise heuristic, participants with a high perceived self–expertise would base their attitudes directly on the arguments provided and would not rely heavily on source expertise” (Reimer et al., 2004, p. 72). Critical listening helps “to determine whether speakers are describing things that they have seen themselves or presenting conclusions that they have drawn themselves, or are reporting the descriptions and conclusions of others” (Pearson, 2008, p. 119).

“A listener’s level of engagement in processing messages requires self–regulation” (Wolvin, 2010, p. 22). In this way, listeners can control their listening engagement and effectiveness. “In this critical listening model, it is the students' role to understand the specific meaning of an utterance within its social and cultural context, a process requiring inference and interpretation” (Boyd, 2005, p. 4).

Sufficiency principle. “The sufficiency principle proposes a continuum of judgmental confidence, along which two critical points lie; one designating perceivers’ level of actual confidence, and the other designating their level of desired confidence” (Chaiken and Trope, 1999, p. 74). This principle “states that the motivation to engage in systematic processing increases to the extent that an individual’s desired level of

confidence falls below his or her actual level of confidence” (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011, p. 3).

The heuristic–systematic model “outlines the mechanism through which variables affecting motivation stimulate systematic processing; systematic processing occurs because these variables increase the discrepancy between actual and desired confidence of a judgment” (Bodie, 2009, p. 92). “Systematic processing of information includes a direct and an indirect path to attitudes and indicates that people may use the expertise heuristic more often than is acknowledged in the persuasion literature” (Reimer et al., 2004, p. 79). Heuristic and systematic processing can “serve defense–motivation, the desire to form or defend particular attitudinal positions, and impression–motivation, the desire to form or hold socially acceptable attitudinal positions” (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p. 326).

Elaboration likelihood model. “The elaboration likelihood model is an information processing theory of persuasion and attempts to provide an integrative framework for understanding the antecedents and consequences of attitude change” (Petty and Heesacker, 1997, p. 108). “A variety of factors, such as unconditioned stimuli, speed of speech, and source credibility, can increase, decrease, or have no effect on attitude change” (Cacciopo, Petty and Crites, 1994, p. 266). Attitude is instrumental in helping people both to take action under varying conditions and to understand those conditions (Cafferata and Tybout, 1989).

Attitude shapes persuasion–based arguments through process, analysis or minor cues (Petty, et al., 1994):

When the elaboration likelihood is low, a variable could serve as a cue; when it is high, the same variable could serve as an issue argument....When the

elaboration likelihood is intermediate, the very same variable could determine the elaboration likelihood. (Kruglanski and Thompson, 1999, p. 86)

“In ELM...argument quality variations are defined empirically, on the basis of observed effects under conditions of high elaboration” (O’Keefe, 2003, p. 267).

A person’s decisions depend on the person, circumstances, cognitive resources, and type of elaboration (Cacioppo et al., 1994). Self-selection is essential to critical listening because the listener initially delays judgment to consider the listening ideas objectively (Kelly, 1982).

Elaboration continuum. “At the core of the ELM is the elaboration continuum. The elaboration continuum is based on a person’s motivation and ability to think about and assess the qualities of the issue-relevant information available in the persuasion context” (Petty, Rucker, Bizer, and Cacioppo, 2004, p. 67). Making a decision involves time and mental capacity to analyze persuasive arguments (Cafferata and Tybout, 1989).

“The ELM is useful for making predictions about how attributes such as interactivity may be processed as a function of motivation and ability to process information” (Liu and Shrum, 2009, p. 54). “Anchoring the ends of this continuum are two routes to persuasion: a central route and a peripheral route” (p. 53). “Critical listeners have a right to expect well-supported arguments from speakers, arguments that contain both true propositions and valid inferences or conclusions” (Kline, 1996, Critical Listening section, para. 7), thereby integrating the elaboration continuum.

Central route of persuasion. The central route to persuasion reviews the persuasive message, generates cognitive responses, and analyzes the position taken (Shavitt and Brock, 1994), suggesting other options and evidence (Larson, 2010).

“Receivers connect in extensive elaboration through central–route persuasion, active processes scrutinizing the message’s arguments, and the product of persuasive efforts which depend on the positivism of the receiver’s thoughts” (O’Keefe, 2003, p. 267). The central route focuses on persuasive messages, which utilize prior knowledge to generate innovative schemes (Cafferata and Tybout, 1989). “In the central information processing route the receiver consciously and directly focuses on the persuasive communication while mentally elaborating on the issues and actively seeking more information” (Larson, 2010, p. 23).

“A person who processes a persuasive message via the central route is likely to evaluate and think critically about the arguments contained in the message” (Dillards and Pfau, 2002, p. 156). “Persuasive outcomes are seen to depend increasingly on the strength of the message’s arguments—stronger arguments will, when scrutinized, produce more positive thoughts” (O’Keefe, 2003, p. 267). “Any variable that increases the likelihood of thinking increases the likelihood of engaging the central route” (Petty, Cacioppo, Strathman, and Priester, 1994, p. 2). People who create a good impression and stimulate critical thinking can persuade by means of central route processing (Shavitt, Swan, Lowrey, and Wänke, 1994). “When assessing the credibility of a speaker, you should determine whether the speaker has qualifications, whether the speaker has experience, and whether the speaker has any evident bias or ulterior motive for taking a certain position” (Pearson et al., 2008, p. 120).

Peripheral route to persuasion. “Peripheral–route persuasion commonly involves the use of simplifying heuristic decision principles based on, for instance, the communicator’s apparent expertise” (O’Keefe, 2003, p. 267). “Peripheral cues have an

initial impact on attitudes but under high argument processing conditions” (Petty et al., 1994, p. 5). Peripheral route attitudes are formed through low scrutiny of message arguments or scrutiny of fewer arguments (Petty and Heesacker, 1997; Petty and Wegener, 1999). Simple cues and emotional characteristics of the message facilitate decisions and judgments (Cafferata and Tybout, 1989). Attractiveness, perceived credibility of the resource, and message length are key elements (Petty, 2001).

“The easiest and most effective way to encourage this type of decision-making is through use of the ‘expertise heuristic,’ a mental shortcut used by those engaged in the peripheral route to persuasion” (Blake, 2013, para. 11). “Effective persuasion...[encompasses] speaker credibility, logic and reasoning, and emotional appeal” (Brownell, 2013, p. 230). This reinforces critical listening skills in adult learners.

Attitude change theory. Attitude change is defined as “the modification of an individual’s general evaluative perception of a stimulus or a set of stimuli” (Cacciopo et al., 1994, p. 261). Although there are a number of different possible approaches to attitude change, they generally

focus on one of two processes: (a) one in which individuals respond to various superficial cues...(b) one in which attitude-relevant information is generated and processed...these various approaches to attitude change can be conceptualized within a general framework for organizing, categorizing, and understanding the basic processes underlying attitude change. (p. 266)

Attitude change in message-based persuasion is based on paradigms (Eagly and Chaiken, 1995). The schemas supporting the attitude change theory include motives, accuracy, self-concept, and social relations (Wood, 2000). “You are persuaded to act only to the extent that communicators influence the underlying attitudes that affect the targeted behavior” (Brownell, 2013, p. 225).

“In the dual-mode framework, motives for change are not preferentially related to change mechanisms or outcomes” (Wood, 2000, p. 542). In their research at Yale, Carl Hovland and his colleagues developed the Yale Attitude Change Approach, based on their conclusions that attitude change entails getting attention, comprehending the message, accepting the message, retaining the information, and describing the attitude of the listener (Hovland et al., 1953).

Information is stored in people’s minds: “Most pieces are connected by pathways to other pieces of information, and accessing one piece may activate others connected to it” (Larson, 2010, p. 101). “Because motives affect the judgments and the judgment-relevant information available in memory, initial motivations for processing may have effects that transcend context, and positions stated in public contexts may be maintained in private” (Wood, 2000, p. 543).

Attitude functions and message orientation increase scrutiny of message content and enhance persuasion through strong arguments (Petty and Wegener, 1999). “The critical listener first discriminates and comprehends the message, then forms judgments to accept or reject the persuasive appeals. Effective critical listening, then, involves sound judgment and awareness of persuasive strategies” (Brownell and Wolvin, 2008, p. 120).

Section II Literature Related to the Study

Listening Definitions

There is a lack of consensus regarding the definition of listening among communication scholars; however, there are consistent elements found in most definitions of listening...perception, attention, interpretation, remembering, and response....However, it is important to note that no definition has been validated or universally accepted. (Janusik, 2004, p. 6)

Listening is the ability to understand spoken language (Rankin, 1926). Ralph Nichols, often referred to as the “father of listening,” described listening behavior as an activity that includes listening for main ideas, identifying the organizational plan, inference-making, and concentration (Nichols, 1948). Listening can be defined as a construct related to reasoning, verbal comprehension, attention, auditory resistance, and memory (Spearritt, 1962). Listening is identified as human behavior disconnected from memory and reading, yet connected to intellectual behaviors (Werner, 1972). Listening is treated as a receptive skill comprising a physical progression and a deductive process for a listening debate (Lundsteen, 1979). “Listening includes phonology, syntax, semantics and knowledge of text structure” (Pearson and Fielding, 1983, p. 3). Listening attends, hears, and understands, responding to spoken messages; it evaluates (Floyd, 1985). Listening is an abstract skill that has been identified as a hypothetical construct attributable to the combination of behaviors and terms (Fitch-Hauser and Hughes, 1987).

Listening is defined as paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something heard (Underwood, 1989). Listening is a complex process performed cognitively and perceived behaviorally (Witkin, 1990). It is one of the least understood processes in language learning; Nunan (1997) called it the "Cinderella Skill," often

overlooked by its older sister, "speaking." Listening is recognized and respected as playing a critical role in both communication and language acquisition (Morley, 1991).

Ninety-eight listening terms used by scholars were used to make a fifteen-cluster map, of which five clusters are focused on: critical listening, active listening, sensory impressions, context, and composite process. The remaining clusters include empathy, information storage, covert response, overt response, interpretation, organization, subliminal cues, non-verbal stimuli, input characteristics, and auditory processing (Witkin and Tochim, 1997).

The International Listening Association (ILA) had a panel discussion where scholars, professors, and practitioners developed a definition: "Listening is the active process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken/or nonverbal messages" (*An ILA Definition of Listening*, 1995, p. 1). Bentley and Bacon concur that listening is a process of receiving, creating meaning from, and reacting to spoken and nonverbal messages. Listening is hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating and responding (Brownell, 2013). "Listening is a multidimensional construct, and its processes and effects have been studied by various disciplines" (Bodie, 2008, p. 1). Spoken language includes assimilation and articulation (Stahr, 2009).

As noted, researchers offer numerous definitions of listening. "Scholars are mystified that one concept could have generated such a wide variety of variables and approaches" (Brownell, 2013, p. 47). Cognitive functions used to define listening include decision making, reasoning, inferring, attending, and assigning meaning. Knowledge about these bases of listening is essential to understanding the role of critical listening in a second language program.

The field of listening has generated diverse attention and commentary while establishing significant common ground. A content analysis of 50 definitions of listening identifies these aspects of commonality: attention, interpretation, perception, remembering, response, visual cues, and spoken sounds (Gleen and Pood, 1989).

Listening

This section examines the differences between hearing and listening, first and second language listening, and the models of the listening process. These are the components that affect how students learn in a second language program.

“Hearing is a prerequisite to all listening that involves vocal communication, regardless of the purpose” (Brownell, 2013, p. 70).

The first step in learning about listening is to understand the distinction between hearing and listening. Hearing is simply the act of receiving sound. Close your eyes to avoid seeing, pinch your nose to avoid smelling, and shrink away to avoid touch, but your ears have no flaps to cover them. Their structure suggests that for your own protection, your ears should never be closed, even when you sleep. Because you cannot close your ears, you receive and hear sounds constantly. (Pearson et al., 2008, p. 110)

“Actually, hearing is only one step; the crucial part is comprehending what was heard” (Tompkins, 2006, p. 43). “The ability to discriminate sounds at a very early age appears to be evident not only in the mother tongue but in other languages also” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, p. 21). “In order to hear accurately, listeners must attend to aural stimuli and concentrate on a particular message” (Brownell, 2013, p. 87). “We can attend to a stimulus for only a short period of time, usually less than thirty seconds. When the breaks in attention occur, and they will, make them short” (Stevens, 1961, p. 42). “We receive stimuli (such as music, words, or sounds) in the ear, where the smallest bones in

the body translate the vibrations into sensations registered by the brain” (Pearson et al., 2008, p. 111).

“People create many obstacles to effective listening....These natural barriers are...attention, working memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory...attention can be selective or automatic” (Pearson et al., 2008, p. 112), "working memory looks for shortcuts when processing...short-term memory is a temporary storage for information to use in a short period of time...long-term memory is our permanent storage place for information” (p. 113).

According to ILA, the definition of listening involves more than hearing. It is “the active process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. It involves the ability to retain information, as well as to react empathically and/or appreciatively to spoken and/or nonverbal messages” (*An ILA definition of listening*, 1995, p. 1).

“Misunderstandings...occur when a receiver actually connects incoming information with stored information but where the resulting meaningful connection must be viewed as inadequate or incorrect” (Allwood and Abelar, 1984, p. 2). “A skillful listener is one who comprehends the context of the listening instance, produces from his or her repertoire a plan or strategy for selection of the appropriate skills, and executes those chosen skills” (Ridge, 1993, p. 4). “The listening component...—interpreting messages—differs from other dimensions in that it requires not only motivation, knowledge, and skill, but also sensitivity” (Brownell, 2013, p. 172).

Models of the Listening Process

The most common models presented for adults are the bottom–up model, the top–down model, and the interactive model (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). The bottom–up processing (data–driven) view and the top–down (conceptually–driven) interpretation view have dominated language pedagogy since the early 1980s, according to Richards (2008).

These cognitive strategies are used in second language listening research extensively (Vandergrift, 2002); as they are closely related to a learning task, they involve manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). Second language listening learners use cognitive strategies to help them process, store, and recall new information (Goh, 1998).

The Bottom–Up Model

“The first model of listening to be developed was the bottom–up model. It was developed by researchers working in the 1940s and 1950s” (Lundsteen, 1966, p. 24). Bottom–up strategies are text based; they include creating meaning from the smallest component of the spoken language. Phonemic units are decoded, then linked together to form words, phrases, clauses, sentences, texts, conversations, and so on, in a linear manner, ultimately leading to recognizing word–order patterns, and cognates, listening for specific details (Nunan, 1998; Valdez–Hernández and Portillo–Campos, 2010). The bottom–up model “would be activated as the learner is signaled to verify comprehension by the trainer/teacher asking a question using the declarative form with rising intonation” (Dozer, 1997, p. 3).

Listeners favour bottom–up processes when they construct meaning by accretion, gradually combining increasingly larger units of meaning from the phoneme–level up to discourse–level features. Bottom–up processes

are developed through practice in word segmentation skills. (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 192)

“Practice in recognizing statements and questions that differ only in intonation help the learner develop bottom–up processing skills” (Dozer, 1997, p. 3).

This component of listening, seen as a decoding process, assumes that the comprehension process begins with information in the sound stream with minimal contribution of information from the listener’s prior knowledge of the world....Used alone, this approach to comprehension is not adequate, because listeners cannot keep up with the sound stream. (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 18)

The Top–Down Model

The top–down model of listening “involves the listener in actively constructing meaning based on expectations, inferences, intentions, and other relevant prior knowledge. It means that you use your own knowledge on determined situations, contexts, texts or conversations” (Valdez–Hernández and Portillo–Campos, 2010, p. 658). Language facts serve as cues to stimulate the top–down process and teach students strategies, such as drawing inferences, selective attention, summarizing different purposes, predicting, and personalizing (Nunan and Miller, 1995).

Organizational patterns of prior knowledge need to be adapted to recent events as part of the schema (Bartlett, 1932). The frame consists of a combination of objects, events, and actions (Dijk, 1977). “Once the structure of an event is stored as a schema in memory, it aids individuals in negotiating future events, in allowing them to predict what is likely to happen” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, p. 25). Skilled learners use more top–down strategies than bottom–up strategies, which are frequently used by less–skilled listeners (Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). The top–down strategy user interprets meaning as

intended by the speakers using schemata or configurations of knowledge in the mind (Dozer, 1997; Flowerdew and Miller, 2005; Nunan, 1998; Pourhossein and Reza, 2011).

Advanced learners use more top–down strategies than beginners use (Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). Listeners “can use advanced organizers to activate prior knowledge and develop a conceptual framework for inferencing” (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 196).

The contextual knowledge of statement interpretation, a concept reflecting Tannen’s notion of *structures of expectations*, is used by listeners who have previous patterns of knowledge and discourse organization (Tannen, 1979). The script, frame, scenario, and schema are also used to reference prior knowledge (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). “Used alone, this approach to comprehension is not adequate either, because listeners may not have all the prior knowledge required, or shared enough of the speaker’s perspective on the subject matter to interpret accurately” (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 18). Top–down and bottom–up processes are interactive and they control understanding (Davis and Johnsrude, 2007).

The Interactive Model

Developed and created for reading, this model also applies to listening (Rumelhart, 1975). It “allows for the possibility of individual variation in linguistic processing...it is sensitive to individual learning styles” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, p. 27). “The relevant schemata that help listeners make sense of particular listening texts serve no purpose if they are simply stored in listeners’ minds” (Pourhossein and Reza, 2011, p. 72).

The interactive model is emphasized when the reader is an active reader and proficient in his reading. Added to that, motivational beliefs of that reader tend to be high. This is not disregarding that there are others who are low on motivation but are interactive readers especially when prompted or compelled. (Avigi, 2008, para. 2)

Styles of Listening

“There is some general agreement that people possess different listening styles. While there is some general agreement that people possess styles of listening there is no universal agreement as to the specific nature of these styles of listening” (Sanders, 2000, p. 7). A style of listening is the preferred way a person approaches listening (Johnston, Weaver, Watson, and Barker, 2000; Langer, 1980), even when he or she is using alternate approaches (Bostrom, 1990; Steil, Barker, and Watson, 1983; Wolvin and Coakley, 1996). Individuals adapt the way they perceive, process, remember, and understand while listening; and they do not tend to rely on a predominant listening style (Schiffrin and Schneider, 1977). People listen more as a function of habit than they do as a conscious choice; they rely on a single, predominant listening style (Aaronson and Scarborough, 1977; Chesebro, 1999; Langer, 1980; Schiffrin and Schneider, 1977). Listeners use one listening style as a habit that they prefer to stay with on an ongoing basis (Langer, 1980). Such differing viewpoints suggest, “There is more than one way to skin a cat.”

Sanders (2000) noted, “Since the presence of styles of listening is generally accepted, there is a great deal of discussion as to the notion of listening styles as a way of explaining the phenomena [*sic*] of listening having differing purposes” (p. 7). “Listening styles are ways in which individuals choose to listen based on individual differences and situational constraints” (Williams, Brown, and Boyle, 2012, p. 441). Styles of listening have to do with the way the basic behavior of listening is carried out in the listening events of life (Sanders, 2000).

Styles determine how people perceive listening and awareness of their strengths and weaknesses (Pearce et al., 2003). Styles of listening could be addressed and

examined, and, as a consequence, people would understand the need for improvement, using suitable listening styles depending on the circumstances (Brown, 1995; Watson and Barker, 1985). “Listening styles may be affected by the contexts in which we listen” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 87). Differences in listening styles reflect attitudes, beliefs, and predispositions about the how, where, when, who, and what of the information reception and encoding process (Watson et al., 1995).

Barker (1971) originated four listening style categories, which were subsequently further developed by Watson (1995), and then utilized by Watson et al., (1995) and Barker and Watson (2000) in establishing the listener preference profile (LPP), an instrument that provides feedback regarding preferences or schemas. Barker’s (1971) listening style categories form the acronym **PACT**:

- **People**–oriented listening is a style where concern for others’ feelings and emotions is first and foremost. These listeners try to find areas of common interest and are responsive to the emotions of others. They are perceived as nurturing and caring, yet working with them can be frustrating because they have difficulty accomplishing tasks and they struggle with tough decisions.
- **Action**–oriented listeners prefer to receive concise, error–free presentations. Individuals endorsing the action–oriented listening style appear to be particularly impatient and easily frustrated when listening to a disorganized presentation. They are productive and like to solve problems, yet they can be perceived as being more concerned with projects than people.
- **Content**–oriented listeners reflect a style preference for receiving complex and highly detailed information. They tend to carefully evaluate all the facts before forming

judgments and opinions. Content-oriented listeners are known to enjoy lengthy meetings and too often avoid closure by examining each detail of a project and how it will fit into the whole picture.

- Time-oriented listeners are inclined to have brief or hurried interactions with others. They keep an organized daily calendar with allocated time for listening; they are known for their to-do lists. Time-oriented listeners are able to complete projects efficiently; however, people working with them can feel rushed or misunderstood.

The foundation of the four listening styles used by Barker, Pearce and Johnson (1992) and then Pearce et al. (2003) was derived from “Davis and Newstrom’s descriptions of effective managerial listening behavior” (Barker et al., 1992, p. 442). Davis and Newstrom (1985) proposed basic guidelines for managerial purposes:

- Just listen; make the talker feel comfortable; create and establish rapport.
- Show interest. Listen to understand. Remove distractions.
- Empathize with the speaker. Try to see the other person’s point of view.
- Share a similar experience with the speaker.
- Be patient, do not interrupt. Pause before responding.
- Go easy on criticism. Do not argue.
- Ask relevant questions (Davis & Newstrom, 1985).

Barker et al. (1992) hypothesized that

listening behavior would differ among the types, resulting in varying effectiveness levels. The active listener, characterized by energetic, focused participation in the speaking-listening exchange, would be the most effective. Following that, the involved listener, who strives to attend to and reflect on the message, would be the next most effective. Then, the passive listener, characterized by deflecting responsibility for the communication’s success to the speaker, would be less effective. Finally, the detached listener, who withdraws

and acts as the object of a speaker's message, would be the least effective. (p. 442)

Other listening styles are described and grouped as (a) passive, active, open door, acknowledging, targeting the counseling audience (Marsh, 1980); (b) passive, active, placid, and preoccupied (Villaume and Cegala, 1988); and (c) unrestricted, inclusive, stylistic, nonjudgmental, technical, emphatic, non-conforming, phatic, informational, non-critical, and persuasive (Freshour, 1987).

Active Listening

The term “active listening” comes from the client-centered therapeutic approach of Carl Rogers (1951). “Active listening or the art of listening has therapeutic effects upon the one who gets things off his chest, relates something about himself or tries to solve a problem” (Ilişoi and Scafaru, n.d., p. 52). “Human beings, as they are experienced in Rogers’ client-centered therapy, are basically rational, socialized, forward moving, and realistic. They are active and proactive, in addition to being reactive to stimuli in their environments. They are basically cooperative, constructive, and trustworthy. Antisocial emotions—jealousy, hostility, competitiveness—do exist but they are defensive reactions to threat and the frustration of more basic impulses for love, belonging, and security” (Patterson, 1977, pp. 42–43). Thomas Gordon (2011) relates

As a graduate student at the University of Chicago, I was asked by my professor and mentor, Dr. Carl Rogers, to contribute a chapter to a book he was writing....Rogers saw that my model of leadership was an application of his new client-centered psychotherapy methodology. (para. 2)

His book was titled *Client Center Psychotherapy: its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory*. It helped make Carl the most famous and respected psychologist in the world. (para. 3)

“The purpose of active listening is to offer the possibility to a person to be able to help oneself through creative thinking and embark on different ways other than the

already known ones” (Ilişoi and Scafaru, n.d., p. 53). Active listening can be defined as a person’s willingness and ability to hear and understand which encompasses six skills: listening carefully, making judgments, reflecting, clarifying, summarizing, and sharing (Hoppe, 2006). “Active listening is characterized more by what is not done, than what is done....Active listening requires the listener to avoid common responses when listening, even internally, and these are very difficult habits to break” (Robertson, 2005, p. 1053). Active listening can bring about changes in people if they listen for total meaning, respond to feelings, and discern non-verbal cues (Rogers and Farson, 1986). “Students who are active listeners use new information more productively....They have a framework for understanding new content and whether or not the content is relevant...filter information” (“Learning through Listening”, 2011, para. 9). Active listening “is a way of listening and responding to another person, which improves mutual understanding” (Mineyama, Tsutsumi, Takao, Nishiuchi, and Kawakami, 2007, p. 81). “Listening comprehension is increasingly being described as an active and interpretative language process in which listeners are dynamically engaged in the construction of meaning” (Murphy, 1989, p. 27).

Critical Listening

Critical listening, as mentioned before, is a form of active listening in which the listener evaluates the speaker and scrutinizes his or her ideas (Pearson et al., 2008, p. 119). Successful critical listeners take control of their listening in order to form dependable judgments and protect themselves from unethical persuasion (Wolvin and Coakley, 1996).

The act of critical listening requires the listener to (a) evaluate what is heard, judging validity, adequacy, ideas, and arguments; (b) differentiate facts and opinions,

drawing conclusions; and (c) assess a speaker's performance, being aware of persuasive messages (Wolvin, 2009).

The effective critical listener considers the source of the message in making judgments about its content. Then she evaluates the message on the basis of sound logic and reasoning. Finally, the critical listener recognizes emotional appeals and responds accordingly. She realizes that effective decision making depends upon sound judgment and analysis, upon weighing the right facts and asking the right questions. (Brownell, 2013, p. 230)

Persuasion can dominate critical listening, making it necessary to maintain or reject persuasive messages (Larson, 2010).

From the listener's perspective, the act of analyzing persuasion facilitates the selection of a message suitable for critical listening (Floyd and Clements, 2005, p. 39). "Listeners respond to persuasive messages at various levels. The credibility (trustworthiness, dynamics, and believability) of the speaker is influential" (Wolvin, 2009, p. 8). Being able to discern persuasion will allow students to accomplish a greater degree of critical listening effectiveness.

Listening Strategies

When students are made aware of the factors that affect listening, the levels of listening, and the components of the listening process, they are more likely to recognize their own listening abilities and engage in activities that prepare them to be effective listeners. (Pourhossein and Reza, 2011, p. 982)

Moreover, "Identifying different strategy patterns and associating them with different proficiency levels is potentially very useful" (Rubin, 1994, p. 211) for listeners because they can enhance their listening comprehension through active listening.

Promoting listening comprehension strategies such as modeling, correcting/supportive feedback, explanation, and assessment will impact students' comprehension (Rubin, Quinn, and Enos, 1988). "We need more work identifying

problems and strategies used in languages with varying kinds of transformations of the listening process for each proficiency level...we need...the kinds of negotiations that enhance understanding” (Rubin, 1994, p. 216). O’Malley and Chamot (1990) recommend three strategies for achieving listening effectiveness:

1. metacognition to assist learners in anticipating listening tasks;
2. cognitive strategies to comprehend and store information in working and long-term memory; and
3. social collaboration between listener and speaker to reduce anxiety and improve understanding.

Murphy’s (1989) model of listening strategies is supported by a “cognitive framework...[it is] widely acknowledged that listeners engage in the use of deliberate, as well as automatic, strategies of listening” (p. 27). This is regarded as hermeneutical, relating to the “art of interpretation, [that] has come to play a central role within a variety of disciplines that deal with the process of developing understanding” (p. 28). This representation of listening may be of benefit to students while they are learning to make sense of academic lectures. Students and teachers periodically might refer to it in order to develop a better sense of what could be taking place within a student’s mind while listening in academic settings. (p. 39)

Murphy’s five strategies are supported by questions:

1. Recalling and Summarizing:
What is the general aim of this presentation? Do I need to remember this?
2. Speculating:
What will the speaker probably be saying next? How do I know? What is the point of this discussion?

3. Self-examining:
Do I have any experience in this area? Am I getting most of this? Do I understand it well?
4. Probing the Topic:
What are the key words being used? How does this idea fit into the speaker's overall plan?
5. Interacting with Others:
Is this a convenient time for me to speak up in class by: asking a question?
Pointing out a relationship between ideas that some listeners may be missing?

This model must be used via live format where the listeners “need opportunities to ask questions, summarize, elicit contextual clarifications, agree, argue, and demand elaboration for what they consider to be important issues. (Murphy, 1989, pp. 39–41)

First Language Listening

Listening development plays a vital role in an individual's language acquisition. The first communication skill acquired early in life is listening, and it continues to develop throughout life (Nichols and Stevens, 1967). Listening begins during the fetus's development in the mother's womb; this is the foundation for language acquisition (Wolvin, 2009). “Babies in the womb can hear, recognize, and react to their mother's voices” (Ashcraft and Tran, 2010, p. 1). “We learn our mother tongue, as children, by listening to it. Then, throughout our lives, listening takes up a substantial proportion of our communication time” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, p. 22). Parents provide the initial framework for language data and children have the opportunity to select communication procedures and tools for maintaining communication (Rost, 1990). Children are immersed in many hours of language before they can generate the sounds they hear (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). Message reception effectiveness involves receiver intentions, purpose, and inferences of the listening message (Wolvin, 2010).

“First language speech education in the 1970s began to focus on the role of the listener in speech events in order to demonstrate to learners how a listener’s purpose influences listener behavior” (Rost, 1990, p. 11). Cognition and behavior do not always occur together because not all behaviors are in synchronization with cognition (O’Heren and Arnold, 1991). Researchers study cognition and behavior correlated with listening as separate phenomena (Wolvin and Coakley, 1996; Janusik, 2007; Vandergrift, 2011). Students focus on the source or the consequence, but not necessarily on the development (Rubin, 1990).

The physical components of the listening process combined with the cognitive development in a child, result in sophisticated listening skills. The natural ability to hear, however, is often mistaken for a fully developed skill that needs no further fine-tuning. (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, p. 21)

Wolvin and Coakley (1996) outline three steps to the listening process:

1. receiving aural stimuli or the combination of aural and visual stimuli;
2. paying attention to the main stimulus, the speaker’s message; and
3. assigning meaning to the listener’s message.

Linguistic awareness encompasses the assignment of meaning and the formulation of a mental schema to decode and interpret the representations of knowledge in the brain (Hulstijn, 2003). The mental schema utilizes concepts, events, and objects, which are linked, organized and interpreted into scripts (Edwards and McDonald, 1993). Scripts provide the framework for understanding—recalling previously received information and interpreting the most recent (Miller, deWinstanely, and Carey, 1996). “Meaningful interpretation of any message requires listening empathy, situating the

competent listener front and center in any communication relationship” (Wolvin, 2010, p. 15). Listeners modify their listening behavior to meet the constraints of given situational contexts (Watson and Barker, 1985). “Every time you communicate, two things happen. First, your behavior either contributes to or hinders the accomplishment of your new task. Second, your relationship with the other person is either strengthened or diminished” (Brownell, 2013, p. 8).

“Human communication is the ability to match perceived meaning with intended meaning” (Pourhossein and Reza, 2011, p. 978). “Effective listening and listenable speaking ultimately converge into the communication perspective of listening behavior” (Wolvin, 2010). “Effective listeners are open-minded and interested in a wide variety of subjects. They tend to like people and have a generally positive attitude” (Brownell, 2013, p. 49). “Listeners are possibly predisposed to be willing listeners through a personality trait, they can and do manipulate their level of listening willingness” (Wolvin, 2010, p. 17). They “...take into account the nonverbal and situational factors that influence negotiation of meanings; in effect, they hear what is not said” (Brownell, 2013, p. 172). In other words, successful listeners read between the lines.

Second Language Listening

“The acquisition of listening ability in an L1 [first language] involves moving from reference-based comprehension to adult-like understanding of how contrasts are made” (Rost, 1990, p. 12). Students who learn to manage their listening process, perception, parsing, and utilization can improve their listening effectiveness (Kurita, 2012). Students’ educational, individual, and professional accomplishments are the arenas for listening and improving communication skills (Morreale, Spitzberg and Barge, 2006). Being able to think in a second language is the most important skill for learning a

new language (Rost, 2001). Listening strengthens the other three language skills; reading, speaking, and writing (Oxford, 1990).

Prior Studies of the Listening Styles Inventory

Keller (2007) examined listening skills in management and leadership competency to improve interpersonal communication problems in organizations. The participants were four court judges, whose listening and decision-making skills were analyzed. One of the instruments used to measure the effectiveness of listening skills was the LSI. “The outcome of the LSI enables an individual to assess the strengths and weaknesses of their [*sic*] listening technique and make adjustments if necessary” (Keller, *Assessing Listening Styles*, para. 1, 2007). “Shelf management toolkits which contain resources to assist organizational leaders build four core communication competencies: insight, feedback and coaching, listening skills, and communicating” (Keller, *Assessing Listening Styles*, para. 2, 2007). At the end of the research, Keller (2007) observed that the judges’ listening skills were assessed to have exceeded Bloom's Taxonomy.

The LSI was used by Allen (2010) to analyze listening behaviors related to leadership. Other surveys were also used to measure behaviors of leadership styles, such as the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) and the full range listening model. The MLQ was used to measure both the behavior of leaders and the quality of leadership. According to Allen (2010) these models are used mainly in academic, industrial, and military settings. The researcher concluded that

Leadership styles identified in the full range leadership model have significant relationships to trainable communication skills. By incorporating these skills into the model and its related training programs, the model may become stronger, it may become more effective and ultimately it may help leaders to have more ability to choose their leadership style rather than be controlled by them [*sic*]. (p. 48)

Prior Studies of the HURIER

Fitzgerald (2009) studied leadership and management as related to listening skills. Participants were registered nurses who used the HURIER listening questionnaire to gather self-reported data to assess listening skills. The researcher “assessed possible relationships between age, education, presence of formal listening training and length of years as a leader/manager and both listening skills and leadership style” (p. iii).

Brownell (1990) explored how managers' listening is perceived in the organizational context of their subordinates in the hospitality sector. Her study suggested that “managers over 45-years old are perceived as poorer listeners than younger counterparts” (Brownell, 1990, p. 411).

Goddu (2013) investigated public speaking which requires listeners to hear and listen. The researcher presented an adapted version of the 1996 HURIER to address the challenges of listening effectiveness.

Janusik (2014) referred to the HURIER as part of the *Review of Literature*. She explained that survey developing, validation, utility, and the HURIER *factors* were part of the listening process. Janusik also described how private industry has benefitted from addressing the factors (Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding) when targeting the characteristics of listeners.

Brownell (1994) “provides an overview of the issues involved in providing listening instruction to those who work or who are preparing to work in organizations” (p. 19). The HURIER was the framework to “examine how managers perceive their own listening behaviors and how their subordinates’ perceptions of these behaviors compare to the managers' self-reports” (p. 20).

Stoltz (2008) presented a hermeneutical model of the listening process that highlights the listening process based on Brownell (HURIER), and other developed models such as listening and perceptive listening. “In order to discuss the various elements of the models individually as well as comparatively, this dissertation has taken various steps in each of these processes and categorized them around the elements of Brownell’s HURIER model” (p. 67). “This work presents a hermeneutical model of the listening process that highlights the choice to listen; it compares this model to behaviorist models which suggest the process starts when one hears or perceives a message” (p. iv).

Summary

The HSM, the ELM, and the attitude change theory are all dual–process theories. They share common ground in their principles, which “divide the mental process underlying social judgment and behavior into two categories depending on whether they operate automatically or in a controlled fashion” (Gawronski and Creighton, 2011, p. 1).

These dual–process theories “play a central [role] in determining the extent to which persuasive techniques were effective. Building on your understanding of these strategies, you can better prepare yourself to handle the wide range of persuasive messages that reach you every day” (Brownell, 2013, p. 227). Using sound judgment and having an awareness of persuasive strategies are essential for being able to listen and discern messages successfully (McCroskey, 2005).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive research study was to learn which listening styles and effective listening skills second language adult learners of Spanish use while listening to improve their critical listening effectiveness.

Research Questions

RQ1: What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?

RQ2: Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?

RQ3: Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish?

Description of Research Design

Population and Sample

Participants in the study were second language learners from the United States Armed Forces who are adult learners, males and females, typically ranging from 18 to 50 years of age. They were military members or government agency personnel assigned to study in the undergraduate Spanish Basic Program, at the European and Latin American Language School, at the Presidio of Monterey, California.

Participants were in a 26-week course. The volunteers were recruited to take the LSI and the HURIER during weeks 22, 23, and 24, and the DLPT5 during week 26. All

were voluntary participants of the study and were briefed on (a) the purpose of the study; (b) the risks, benefits, and voluntary nature of the study; and (c) the precautions established to protect participants' confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy. Volunteers were recruited from three classes of the Spanish Basic Course: 01QB613, 15QB313, and 01QB713.

Method and Design

This quantitative descriptive study used three instruments: the LSI survey, the HURIER survey, and the Spanish DLPT5 lower-range listening comprehension test. The LSI survey evaluated listening styles/effectiveness and behavior, the HURIER survey measured listening effectiveness and behavior, and the Spanish DLPT5 listening test measured listening comprehension.

The LSI and the HURIER listening surveys, paper-based inventories, were used to collect quantitative data. The first instrument, the LSI, comprises 10 items used to collect listening styles/effectiveness data from the participants in the study. The second instrument, the HURIER survey, consists of 36 items focused on six components: Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding. The third quantitative instrument, the computer-administered Spanish DLPT5 lower-range listening test, is used to assesses listening proficiency via 60 multiple-choice items based on 36 authentic passages.

The study used descriptive statistics to present the means and standard deviations of the demographic profile, the LSI, and the HURIER. Pearson product-moment correlation (PPMC) was used to describe the relationship between the scores on the LSI and those on the HURIER. The DLPT5 Spanish lower-range listening test was

correlated with the other two instruments to determine if there were interrelationships between the instruments and the test.

At the beginning of the research project, participants were asked to sign the Consent to Participate in Research (Appendix H) form before taking part in the study. Participation was strictly voluntary. The DLIFLC Spanish students who were invited to participate in the study were in their third semester of classes. Distributed by hand by the researcher, the LSI and the HURIER were administered in the Spanish Basic Program at the European and Latin American School of the DLIFLC at the Presidio of Monterey, California: on November 18, 2013 to class 01QB613; on January 10, 2014, to class 15QB313; and on January 13, 2014, to class 01QB713. Participants received feedback about their listening styles, listening behaviors, and listening effectiveness, based on the LSI and the HURIER, one week after they were tested. During the feedback, respondents were asked to complete a questionnaire to find out whether they believed the feedback on their listening styles and effectiveness was valuable.

Description of Instruments

Listening Styles Inventory

The Listening Styles Inventory (LSI) (Appendix B) was developed by Barker, Pearce, and Johnson in 1992 and modified by Pearce et al. in 2003 at Virginia Commonwealth University. The survey is a self-report instrument used to identify a person's usual or preferred listening style (see *Interpretation of the Listening Styles Inventory*, Appendix C). The LSI determines listening styles through four scales: active, involved, passive, and detached. The instrument was designed to provide trainers, academic instructors, and organizational executives with a self-administrated tool to

evaluate listening effectiveness in the workplace (Pearce et al., 2003). This survey allowed adult learners in the DLIFLC's second language Spanish program to identify their preferred listening style. "The instrument's function is to raise users' awareness of these perceptions [listening styles] so that they take action, if necessary, to improve their listening skills" (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 85). Permission to use this instrument was granted online through RightsLink (Appendix D).

Table 1 refers to "sub-concepts that measure the construct of perceived listening effectiveness and show which items correlate with each other and cluster, or load, around a specific factor or dimension of perceived listening effectiveness" (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 93).

Table 1

Dimensions of Perceived Listening

Scale	Items	Total
Motivation or purpose for listening	1, 4, 5, 6, 7	5
Lack of focus or detachment	2, 8	2
Understanding and perception	9, 10	2
Logic or organizational ability	3	1

Participants respond to ten-items indicating how often they engage in a particular type of behavior. Table 2 shows an example of the Likert-type scale where participants selected how frequently they engage in a particular type of listening behavior.

Table 2

Likert-Type Scale

Item	Almost never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
I want to listen to what others have to say when they are talking.	1	2	3	4	5

Validity and Reliability

In 2003, Pearce et al. assessed validity and reliability. To reinforce validity, they also analyzed a prior report, *Listening Types Inventory* (Barker et al., 1992), which included the same 10 listening items. The initial validity and reliability of the 1992 version of the LSI was tested using data from diverse managerial groups. “In attempting to establish the reliability and validity of our measure, the LSI, we conducted a number of activities and tests as previous researchers have suggested [Cronbach; Ghiselli; Nunnally; Kerlinger; Churchill]” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 90). The reliability of the inventory using coefficient alpha (Cronbach) was .75, giving evidence that the questionnaire was reliable. A test–retest study to gain additional evidence of the inventory’s reliability showed that participants’ scores were stable when the questionnaire was conducted at different intervals. Spearman’s rank analysis yielded a significant correlation between the test–retest at the .05 level ($r = .84$), which offered strong evidence that the scores remained steady over time.

To analyze changes of listening styles among groups, other procedures were conducted: (a) structured interviews; (b) expert observation; (c) the General Linear Model (GLM) procedure [an analysis of variance (ANOVA)]; and Tukey’s HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test of studentized range. Results yielded further

evidence of the validity and reliability of the LSI as a self-administered diagnostic listening tool (Pearce et al., 2003). Pearce et al. concluded that the LSI, in its present form dated January 01, 2003, “can serve as a guide for assessing a manager’s perceived listening effectiveness” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 84).

The second validation study, version 2003, repeated the activities from the first study and conducted a test-retest study, enlarging the sample, and establishing a real-life correlation for convergent validity and reliability using coefficient alpha. Cronbach’s alpha was .70 and came from a representative sample population of 252 that allowed a wider variability. The Spearman rank-order coefficient was significant at the .05 level ($r = .89$), confirming the results of the first study ($r = .84$) with even stronger evidence. Both validation studies confirmed that the LSI is a reliable and valid instrument useful for assessing listening effectiveness (Pearce et al., 2003).

“Listening means the active process of selecting and integrating relevant information....The ability to listen effectively is a component of communication effectiveness” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 86). The first LSI validity and reliability study conducted by Pearce et al. (2003) included the participation of three “practicing managers and four academics....We selected these experts because they had published and/or conducted seminars on listening....They concluded that the instrument had content or face [commonsense] validity” (pp. 90–91). LSI is an ideal instrument for adult learners in a second language program discover their listening style.

HURIER Listening Survey

Judy Brownell developed the HURIER Listening Survey (Appendix E) in 1990. The survey is a self-report questionnaire created to address poor listening skills in

managers. It has been used extensively by service organizations and the hospitality industry to assess managerial listening effectiveness (Brownell, 1990).

The survey version, 2013, has 36 items (See *Guide to Access the HURIER Listening Survey*, Appendix F) that make up six separate yet interrelated components: Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding. Table 3 defines the components.

Table 3

Components of the HURIER Listening Survey

Hearing	Concentrating on and attending to the message.
Understanding	Comprehending the literal meaning of the message.
Remembering	Recalling the message so that it can be acted upon.
Interpreting	Sensitivity to nonverbal and contextual aspects of the message.
Evaluating	Logical assessment of the value of the message.
Responding	Selecting an appropriate response to the what is heard.

The HURIER model is based on four goals:

1. Recognize the magnitude of listening well and be motivated to listen.
2. Learn how to improve listening effectiveness.
3. Acquire effective listening skills and practice them.
4. Examine listening situations and select the best strategy when listening.

Permission to use the HURIER listening survey was obtained from Dr. Judi Brownell (Appendix G).

Validity and Reliability

The HURIER was validated with two factor analyses: The first one was exploratory and the second one had 1,000 participants (Brownell, 1985). “The names of the elements mirror the ideas in the 60 years of listening definitions, as the elements comprised for the factor analyses came from the literature” (Janusik, 2010, p. 208). This extensive listening–definition research gave face validity to the HURIER model. Brownell produced a validated model based on the literature review and the factor analyses.

The initial HURIER included 59 items and a 7–point scale. Brownell (1994) analyzed data from the 59 items and established content validity. A second 26–item model used a 7–point rating scale as part of the validation. This study used the 36–item version because it is more applicable to listening effectiveness.

Procedures and Data Collection

Introduction

The research was conducted during the 2014 spring semester in the Spanish Language Program at DLIFLC in Monterey, California. Participants were informed that an ongoing study of critical listening effectiveness was taking place. Participants ($N = 52$) had an informed consent meeting with the researcher. The meeting took place at DLIFLC Spanish Department facilities. The researcher explained (a) the purpose of the study and (b) the instruments used: the demographic profile, the LSI survey, the HURIER survey, and the listening styles and listening effectiveness feedback questionnaire. Prior to taking the surveys, participants were provided with detailed information on the study and sufficient time to read it and review it. The information given to participants was in English. The project was described fully—purpose of the research, data collection

procedures, confidentiality, and significance of the study. Participants were informed that their involvement was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time with no negative consequences. They were advised that all data collected would be permanently destroyed by shredding five years later, after completion of the study. The students were informed about (a) their rights regarding participation and (b) how their anonymity would be protected.

After participants volunteered to participate in the study, they received written instructions, including the date and location where the surveys were to take place. The data collected from the surveys were downloaded to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 for analysis.

Data Analysis

This study examined three research questions. The first one referred to the listening behaviors of adult learners in the Spanish Basic Program, as measured by the LSI and the HURIER. The second research question focused on the relationship between listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness in second language adult learners of Spanish. The third question referred to the relationship between listening styles, listening effectiveness, and listening comprehension scores from the DLPT5 lower-range test. Overall study questions, data collection techniques, instruments, and data resources are presented in Table 4.

The demographic profile, the LSI survey, the HURIER survey, and the listening portion of the Spanish DLPT5 scores were analyzed using the SPSS version 20. For each of the 10 questions of the LSI survey and the 36 questions of the HURIER, subjects

selected one response on a 5–point Likert scale. Means, standard deviations, and PPMC correlations were calculated. Each scale and subscale of the LSI and HURIER was analyzed.

Table 4

Research Questions, Type of Analysis, and Instruments

Research Questions	Type of Analysis	Instruments
1. What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?	Correlation	LSI survey and HURIER survey
2. Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), among second language adult learners of Spanish at DLIFLC?	Correlation	LSI survey and HURIER survey
3. Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish?	Quantitative	LSI survey and HURIER survey, Spanish DLPT5 lower–range listening portion

RQ1: What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?

This question was answered using descriptive statistics, means and standard deviations.

Tables and figures were used to illustrate the findings.

RQ2: Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?

This question was answered using correlation analysis.

RQ3: Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among second language adult learners of Spanish?

This question was answered using correlation analysis. The Pearson Product–Moment Correlation measured correlations between the LSI (listening styles), the HURIER (listening effectiveness) components, and the listening scores of the Spanish DLPT5.

Protection of Human Subjects

There are ethical concerns regarding the anonymity of volunteers who participate in a research study (Johnson and Christenson, 2004). These ethical concerns were addressed when conducting this research on critical listening effectiveness. Individual participant responses remained confidential and anonymous, with the final report showing only aggregate data to ensure the anonymity of participants. Authorization and approval from appropriate administrators and participants were obtained prior to collecting the data.

Participants were given a Consent to Participate in Research form and advised that their identities would remain anonymous. They were asked to read and sign the form before completing the surveys.

Participants were thoroughly informed about (a) what their contribution involved, (b) how their anonymity would be protected, and (c) how the information they provided on the Consent to Participate in Research form would be secured. This form outlines the purpose of the study and the rights of the participants. Participants were reminded that their participation was voluntary. Original questionnaires remained in the researcher's possession in a water proof, fireproof digital safe, secured with a secret number combination known only to the researcher and kept under lock and key in the researcher's personal residence. Questionnaires will be permanently destroyed by shredding five years after the completion of the study. Summary data were reported using tables and graphs for each research question in Chapter 4, maintaining the anonymity of the participants. Participants had access to the study results.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive research study was to learn which listening styles and effective listening skills second language adult learners of Spanish use while listening to improve their critical listening effectiveness. This chapter presents the results of the investigation of critical listening effectiveness in a second language Spanish program in Monterey, California.

This research was conducted (a) to identify the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys and (b) to explore the possibility of a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC. It was conducted to see if there was a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish.

This study is presented in a descriptive format that includes figures, narratives, and tables. This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents the demographic data of the study; descriptive statistics were used to analyze the information. The second section presents the quantitative findings of the study; descriptive statistics, Pearson's product-moment correlation, and Spearman's rank-order correlation were used to analyze the research questions. The third section presents the qualitative findings of the students' feedback based on a content analysis of data from the

LSI and HURIER, and the fourth section provides a summary to recapitulate significant findings of the study.

Three research questions guided this study:

RQ1: What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?

RQ2: Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?

RQ3: Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish?

Section 1: Demographics

The population of this study was derived from three data collections from the DLI Spanish Basic Program. The first data collection of the study ($n = 17$) consisted of students from Spanish (QB) who began the Basic Program on June 6, 2013. The students signed the consent form and took the LSI and HURIER surveys on November 18, 2013, and the DLPT5 on December 13, 2013. The second sample for the study consisted of students from class 15QB313, ($n = 23$), who started instruction on July 25, 2013, signed the consent form and took the surveys on January 10, 2014, and took the DLPT5 on February 6, 2014. The third data collection of the study ($n = 12$) was from class

01QB713, who started instruction on August 1, 2013, signed the consent form and took the surveys on January 13, 2014, and took the DLPT5 on February 6, 2014. The students who attended these classes volunteered to participate in the study that yielded the results presented in this research.

The language program is located at the Presidio of Monterey, California. Students in the program are adult learners, ranging in age from 18 to 50, who are United States military service members or government agency employees.

The selection of these participants was a convenience sampling of one language and one language school, with limited generalizations that can be extended to a larger audience. The Spanish students were assigned in accordance with standard procedures and, according to the researcher, were typical students in the Spanish Basic Course.

Demographic Data

Demographic information was collected from 52 Basic Course Spanish students who attended different courses from June 2013 to February 2014. The data were represented by the frequency of answers to items presented in the beginning of the survey instrument. The demographic survey included seven questions regarding general characteristics of the participants: name, gender, age group, ethnicity, native language, other languages spoken, and highest level of education completed.

The majority of respondents were 46 males (Table 5), representing 88.5% of the sample population, and six females, representing 11.5%. The students ranged from 18 to 50 years of age (Table 6). In the group, 27% ($n = 14$) were under 21 years old; 56% ($n = 29$) were 21–30 years old; 13% ($n = 7$) were 31–40 years old, and 4% ($n = 2$) were 41–50 years old.

Table 5

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Female	6	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Male	46	88.5	88.5	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Table 6

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Under 21	14	26.9	26.9	26.9
	21-30	29	55.8	55.8	82.7
	31-40	7	13.5	13.5	96.2
	41-50	2	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Most participants—80% ($n = 42$)—were Caucasian; 10% ($n = 5$) were African–American, and the remaining 10% ($n = 5$) had other ethnicity, as shown in Table 7. The majority of participants—94% ($n = 49$)—grew up speaking English; 2% ($n = 1$) grew up speaking Serbo-Croatian/English, 2% ($n = 1$) speaking Hmong, and 2% ($n = 1$) speaking Yoruba. A majority of participants—63% ($n = 33$)—reported that they do not speak any additional languages other than their native tongue and English; 21% ($n = 11$) of the participants speak Spanish; and the remaining 16% ($n = 16$) speak other languages, as illustrated on Table 8.

Table 7

Ethnicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Caucasian	42	80.5	80.5	80.5
	African-American	5	9.8	9.8	90.3
	Hispanic	1	1.9	1.9	92.2
	Asian	3	5.9	5.9	98.1
	Other	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Table 8

Other Languages Spoken at Home

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	French	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	Hausa	1	1.9	1.9	3.8
	Irish	1	1.9	1.9	5.8
	No	12	23.1	23.1	7.7
	None	21	40.4	40.4	30.8
	Russian, Chinese	1	1.9	1.9	71.2
	Russian, Spanish	1	1.9	1.9	73.1
	Serbo-Croatian	1	1.9	1.9	75.0
	Spanish	11	21.2	21.2	76.9
	Tagalog	1	1.9	1.9	98.1
	Ukrainian, Russian	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

The majority of participants—48% ($n = 25$) had a high school degree as the highest educational level (Table 9); 44% ($n = 23$) of the participants had a bachelor's or a

master's degree [23% ($n = 12$) had bachelor's degrees and 21% ($n = 11$) had master's degrees]; and 7.7% ($n = 4$) had associate's degrees.

Table 9

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	High school	25	48.1	48.1	48.1
	Associate's degree	4	7.7	7.7	55.8
	College baccalaureate	12	23.1	23.1	78.8
	Master's degree	11	21.2	21.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Section 2: Quantitative Findings

Quantitative data was collected through the distribution of the LSI, the HURIER questionnaire, and the DLPT5. The LSI and HURIER surveys are self-report instruments that gather information on listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness respectively; the DLPT—listening portion—is a proficiency language test.

Data for the LSI, the HURIER, and the listening portion of the DLPT5 were tabulated in Microsoft Excel and then imported to SPSS version 20 for calculations. The LSI questionnaire consisted of 10 questions and provided a range of responses based on a 5-point Likert scale: 1–Almost Never, 2–Seldom, 3–Sometimes, 4–Often, and 5–Almost Always. Questions 2 and 8 were graded in reverse order: 1–Almost Always, 2–Often, 3–Sometimes, 4–Seldom, and 5–Almost Never. The HURIER questionnaire contained 36 questions and provided a range of answers on a Likert scale from 1–Almost Never to 5–

Almost Always. The DLPT5 scores were stated as levels 0+ (.6) through 3 (30) in the Basic Spanish Course.

Research Question 1

What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys? The first research question was addressed to determine the listening behaviors that a Spanish student uses when listening. The data were analyzed at two levels: (a) individual items and (2) scale, using first the LSI and then the HURIER. Each response of RQ1 was first considered individually and then cumulatively.

Listening Behavior LSI

Data gathered from frequency scores were arranged into listening behavior results: frequency, percentage, valid percentage, cumulative percentage, mean, and standard deviation. Questionnaire results were stratified into mean level agreement scores from each respondent. Of the 10 questions in the LSI survey, results were assimilated into three variable scales (Table 10) representing behaviors that may influence listening styles/effectiveness. The first step in the analysis included the measures of central tendency for each LSI question. Respondents in this research used the following listening behaviors: *passive*, *involved*, and *active*. The lowest level of listening, *detached*, was not included because no participant here used this listening skill.

Table 10

LSI Factors and Variables

Factor	Variable
1	Passive listening behavior
2	Involved listening behavior
3	Active listening behavior

Passive Listening Behavior Component

When the data were tabulated by listening behavior, interesting patterns appeared. Table 11 shows that 46.2% ($n = 24$) of respondents used the passive listening behavior, 7.7% ($n = 4$) of the respondents were just one step closer to the next higher level of listening, active, and 1.9% of the population bordered the lowest level of listening, detached.

Table 11

Passive Listening Behavior Score

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	2.80	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2.90	1	1.9	1.9	3.8
	3.20	4	7.7	7.7	11.5
	3.40	3	5.8	5.8	17.3
	3.50	5	9.6	9.6	26.9
	3.60	6	11.5	11.5	38.5
	3.70	4	7.7	7.7	46.2
	Total	52	46.2	46.2	

Involved Listening Behavior Component

Table 12 shows that 48% ($n = 25$) of the respondents used the involved style of listening, making it the most frequently used listening behavior; 9.6% ($n = 5$) were close to the active listening behavior level.

Table 12

Involved Listening Behavior Score

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	3.80	5	9.6	9.6	9.6
	3.90	3	5.8	5.8	15.4
	4.00	9	17.3	17.3	32.7
	4.10	2	3.8	3.8	36.5
	4.20	4	7.7	7.7	44.2
	4.30	2	3.8	3.8	48.0
	Total	25	48.0	48.0	

Active Listening Behavior Component

The data presented in Table 13 show that 5.8% ($n = 3$) of the respondents used active listening behavior when listening to Spanish. Respondents 175, 195, and 285 were active listeners.

Table 13

Active Listening Behavior Score

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	4.50	2	3.8	3.8	3.8
	4.70	1	1.9	1.9	5.7
	Total	3	5.7	5.7	

The data from the LSI summarizes the listening behaviors that respondents use when listening. Each score reports frequencies of use within that behavior. Table 14 includes the frequency and percentage of use of listening behavior included in the LSI survey. The data shown in the table incorporated percentage and cumulative percentage; they are listed in the table in the order of most used to least used.

Respondents answered that the involved style of listening was the most used, reported by 25 respondents (48%). The passive style of listening was the second most used style. This means that 46% of the respondents ($n = 24$) are usually passive listeners. Active listening was the least used style, reported used by 3 respondents (6%).

Table 14

Listening Behavior Frequency, Percent and Cumulative Percent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Passive	24	46.2	46.2	46.2
	Involved	25	48.1	48.1	94.2
	Active	3	5.8	5.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

The overall mean and standard deviations (Table 15) of the responses of the LSI showed that involved and passive behaviors (see *Listening Styles Inventory, Definition of Terms*) were the listening behaviors that adult learners of Spanish used most when listening. The data in Table 15 showed respondents' support of (a) LSI1 ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .8$): *I want to listen to what others have to say when they are talking*; (b) LSI3 ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .7$): *By listening, I can guess a speaker's intent or purpose without being told*; (c) LSI9 ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .9$): *I ask questions when I don't fully understand a speaker's message*; and (d) LSI4 ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .8$): *I have a purpose for listening when others are talking*.

The listening behaviors reported by respondents that scored as least used were

- LSI6 ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.0$): *I analyze my listening errors so as not to make them again*;
- LSI2 ($M = 3.5$, $SD = .9$): *I do not listen attentively when others are talking*;
- LSI7 ($M = 3.6$, $SD = .9$): *I cannot tell when a speaker's biases or attitudes are affecting his or her message*; and
- LSI9 ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .9$): *I ask questions when I don't fully understand a speaker's message* ($M = 3.6$ for both questions and $SD = .9$ and $.8$ respectively).

Table 15

Overall Respondents Perspectives of Listening Behavior per Question

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
LSI1	52	2	5	4.10	.823
LSI2	52	1	5	3.50	.980
LSI3	52	2	5	3.98	.754
LSI4	52	2	5	3.92	.837
LSI5	52	1	5	3.75	.860
LSI6	52	1	5	3.54	1.019
LSI7	52	1	5	3.62	.993
LSI8	52	1	5	3.62	.889
LSI9	52	1	5	3.96	.989
LSI10	52	2	5	3.83	.678

Listening Behavior HURIER

Data aggregated from frequency scores were arranged into listening behavior results: frequency, percent, valid percent, and cumulative percent. These data correspond to scores based on 5-point Likert scales of agreement: 1—Almost Never to 5—Almost Always. Survey results were stratified into scores from each frequency respondent. Of the 36 questions on the HURIER questionnaire, results were assimilated into six variables—hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and responding—the scales representing listening behaviors. The first step in the analysis included the measures of central tendency of each HURIER question.

Responding Listening Behavior Component

Responding (Table 16) appears to be the strongest of all components in terms of student response. The overall mean score was 3.8 ($SD = 0.4$). The strongest responses for *excellent listener* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) came from

- Q6: *When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class and the instructor asks me a question about the content, I reply based on what I have understood;*
- Q9: *I do not let my emotions interfere with my listening or decision making when I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class; and*
- Q19: *I encourage information sharing among fellow students by creating a climate of trust and support whenever talking about a Spanish audio clip that I heard in class.*

Table 16

Responding Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	2.33	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	3.00	2	3.8	3.8	5.8
	3.17	2	3.8	3.8	9.6
	3.33	2	3.8	3.8	13.5
	3.50	9	17.3	17.3	30.8
	3.67	8	15.4	15.4	46.2
	3.83	4	7.7	7.7	53.8
	4.00	7	13.5	13.5	67.3
	4.17	6	11.5	11.5	78.8
	4.33	7	13.5	13.5	92.3
	4.50	3	5.8	5.8	98.1
	4.67	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Understanding Listening Behavior Component

Students appear to recognize understanding as a moderately strong listening behavior component. Table 17 indicates that understanding has a mean score of 3.6, the second highest in the study ($SD = 4.7$). The minimum and maximum scores are 2.0 and 4.5.

The strong responses for *excellent listener* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) came from

- Q11: *I recognize my “hot buttons” and don’t let them influence my listening during an audio clip in my Spanish class; and*
- Q28: *I ask other listeners relevant questions and restate my perceptions to make sure I have understood the Spanish audio clip correctly.*

Table 17

Understanding Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	2.00	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2.83	3	5.8	5.8	7.7
	3.00	1	1.9	1.9	9.6
	3.17	3	5.8	5.8	15.4
	3.33	6	11.5	11.5	26.9
	3.50	4	7.7	7.7	34.6
	3.67	9	17.3	17.3	51.9
	3.83	9	17.3	17.3	69.2
	4.00	7	13.5	13.5	82.7
	4.17	5	9.6	9.6	92.3
	4.33	2	3.8	3.8	96.2
	4.50	2	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Hearing Listening Behavior Component

The hearing listening behavior component (Table 18) appears to be a moderate listening behavior in terms of HURIER responses. The overall mean score was 3.5 ($SD = .5$). The minimum was 1.8 and the maximum 4.3 with a difference of 2.5. Sixty percent of the questions related to hearing that had strong responses related to *good listening* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) came from

- Q16: *I listen to a Spanish audio clip with a positive attitude;*
- Q20: *I concentrate on what the speaker says during a Spanish audio clip, even when the information is complicated;*
- Q24: *I am relaxed and focused in important communication situations during a Spanish audio clip in class; and*
- Q33: *I am ready to focus my attention when a speaker begins to talk in a Spanish audio clip.*

Table 18

Hearing Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	1.83	2	3.8	3.8	3.8
	2.17	1	1.9	1.9	5.8
	3.00	2	3.8	3.8	9.6
	3.17	5	9.6	9.6	19.2
	3.33	8	15.4	15.4	34.6
	3.50	6	11.5	11.5	46.2
	3.67	6	11.5	11.5	57.7
	3.83	10	19.2	19.2	76.9
	4.00	5	9.6	9.6	86.5
	4.17	4	7.7	7.7	94.2
	4.33	3	5.8	5.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Remembering Listening Behavior Component

The mean score for remembering was 3.4 ($SD = .5$), presented in Table 19. This is a medium mean score with a minimum of 1.3 and a maximum of 4.8. Sixty-seven percent of the responses that correspond to *good listener* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) came from

- Q3: *I pay attention to the most relevant information when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class;*
- Q10: *I remember what the speaker said when I listen to a Spanish audio clip;*
- Q18: *I accurately remember what the speaker says in a Spanish audio clip even when disagreeing with his/her viewpoint; and*
- Q31: *I have a wide variety of interests when listening, which helps me remember the main points in a Spanish audio clip during class.*

Table 19

Remembering Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	1.33	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2.33	1	1.9	1.9	3.8
	2.67	2	3.8	3.8	7.7
	2.83	3	5.8	5.8	13.5
	3.00	2	3.8	3.8	17.3
	3.17	6	11.5	11.5	28.8
	3.33	4	7.7	7.7	36.5
	3.50	10	19.2	19.2	55.8
	3.67	6	11.5	11.5	67.3
	3.83	5	9.6	9.6	76.9
	4.00	6	11.5	11.5	88.5
	4.17	4	7.7	7.7	96.2
	4.33	1	1.9	1.9	98.1
	4.83	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Interpreting Listening Behavior Component

Interpreting listening behavior component has a mean (Table 20) score of 3.3 ($SD = .5$), which is medium low. The minimum score is 2.0 and the maximum 4.8. Fifty percent of the responses are related to *good listener* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) and came from

- Q14: *I can infer the speaker's meaning in a Spanish audio clip in class;*
- Q17: *I am sensitive to the speaker's tone of voice when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class; and*
- Q21: *I understand the spoken message in class while listening to a Spanish audio clip.*

Table 20

Interpreting Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	2.00	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2.17	1	1.9	1.9	3.8
	2.33	1	1.9	1.9	5.8
	2.50	2	3.8	3.8	9.6
	2.67	2	3.8	3.8	13.5
	2.83	3	5.8	5.8	19.2
	3.00	6	11.5	11.5	30.8
	3.17	4	7.7	7.7	38.5
	3.33	10	19.2	19.2	57.7
	3.50	5	9.6	9.6	67.3
	3.67	4	7.7	7.7	75.0
	3.83	3	5.8	5.8	80.8
	4.00	5	9.6	9.6	90.4
	4.17	1	1.9	1.9	92.3
	4.33	3	5.8	5.8	98.1
	4.83	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
Total		52	100.0	100.0	

Evaluating Listening Behavior Component

Evaluating, as a listening behavior component, was seldom used by the participants. As indicated in Table 21, the overall evaluating component had very low mean scores in comparison to the other listening behavior components. The evaluating component reported a mean score of 3.3 ($SD = .5$), the lowest mean and

the highest standard deviation score. The strongest response is related to *good listener* (see *HURIER Listening Survey, Definition of Terms*) and came from

- Q34: *When listening to a Spanish audio clip in class, I willingly consider new evidence and circumstances that might prompt me to reevaluate my previous point of view.*

The lowest response is related to *listening skills adequate* (see *Guide to Access the HURIER Listening Survey, Appendix F*) and came from

- Q8: *When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class, I consider the speaker's personal expertise on the topic when he or she expresses a point of view.*

Table 21

Evaluating Listening Behavior Component

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	2.00	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2.17	1	1.9	1.9	3.8
	2.33	2	3.8	3.8	7.7
	2.50	2	3.8	3.8	11.5
	2.67	1	1.9	1.9	13.5
	2.83	5	9.6	9.6	23.1
	3.00	2	3.8	3.8	26.9
	3.17	7	13.5	13.5	40.4
	3.33	8	15.4	15.4	55.8
	3.50	6	11.5	11.5	67.3
	3.67	5	9.6	9.6	76.9
	3.83	4	7.7	7.7	84.6
	4.00	4	7.7	7.7	92.3
	4.17	2	3.8	3.8	96.2
	4.33	1	1.9	1.9	98.1
	4.67	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

The data were further stratified to calculate the overall mean average per question (Table 22) and per variable (Table 23). The standard deviation of responses to the LSI that scored the highest were

- H6, Responding ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .8$): *When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class and the instructor asks me a question about the content, I reply based on what I have understood;*
- H9, Responding ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .9$): *I do not let my emotions interfere with my listening or decision making when I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class;*
- H3, Remembering ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .6$): *I pay attention to the most relevant information when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class;*
- H19, Responding ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .8$): *I encourage information sharing among fellow students by creating a climate of trust and support whenever talking about a Spanish audio clip that I heard in class;*
- H20, Hearing ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .9$): *I concentrate on what the speaker says during a Spanish audio clip, even when the information is complicated;*
- H16, Hearing ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .7$): *I listen to a Spanish audio clip with a positive attitude.*

The listening behaviors reported by participants to be the least effective behaviors were

- H4, Hearing ($M = 2.2$, $SD = .9$): *I listen carefully to a Spanish audio clip and I am able to repeat what I hear verbatim;*

- H8, Evaluating ($M = 2.8$, $SD = 1.0$): *When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class, I consider the speaker's personal expertise on the topic when he or she expresses a point of view; and*
- H30, Interpreting ($M = 2.9$, $SD = 1.0$): *I am sensitive to the speaker's feelings during the Spanish audio clip.*

Table 22

Overall Respondents Perspectives of Listening Behavior per Question

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
H1	52	1	5	3.37	.864
H2	52	1	5	3.04	.989
H3	52	3	5	4.06	.698
H4	52	1	4	2.29	.957
H5	52	1	5	3.21	.915
H6	52	1	5	4.21	.800
H7	52	1	5	3.06	.916
H8	52	1	5	2.87	1.048
H9	52	1	5	4.10	.995
H10	52	1	5	3.38	.718
H11	52	1	5	3.94	1.056
H12	52	1	5	3.29	1.035
H13	52	2	5	3.48	.828
H14	52	2	5	3.52	.754
H15	52	1	5	3.21	.848
H16	52	2	5	4.04	.740
H17	52	1	5	3.75	.905
H18	52	1	5	3.75	.883
H19	52	2	5	4.15	.826
H20	52	1	5	4.15	.916
H21	52	2	5	3.69	.701
H22	52	1	5	3.48	.779
H23	52	1	5	3.35	.947
H24	52	2	5	3.79	.696
H25	52	1	5	3.63	.908
H26	52	1	5	3.73	.931
H27	52	1	5	3.29	.825
H28	52	1	5	3.88	.922
H29	52	1	5	3.15	1.178
H30	52	1	5	2.90	1.089
H31	52	1	5	3.50	.874
H32	52	2	5	3.60	.846
H33	52	1	5	3.90	.846
H34	52	2	5	3.81	.742
H35	52	1	5	3.23	.831
H36	52	1	5	3.77	.807
Valid	52				

Table 23

Overall Respondents Perspectives of Listening Behavior per Variable

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Hearing	52	1.83	4.33	3.5641	.53845
Understanding	52	2.00	4.50	3.6731	.47251
Remembering	52	1.33	4.83	3.4968	.56927
Interpreting	52	2.00	4.83	3.3654	.58395
Evaluating	52	2.00	4.67	3.3365	.56543
Responding	52	2.33	4.67	3.8269	.46202

Research Question 2

Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?

The second research question was addressed to determine if there is a possible relationship between LSI and HURIER listening styles/effectiveness scores. The data were analyzed at three levels: (a) LSI subconcepts of dimensions of perceived listening (see Table 1), (b) HURIER components of the listening survey (see Table 5); and (c) relationship between listening styles/effectiveness, LSI, and listening effectiveness, HURIER. To answer the second question, each level of analysis was initially considered by survey and then in aggregate.

The first procedure in the analysis developed the measures of central tendency. The mean and standard deviation scores were calculated. The secondary step developed composite mean and standard deviation subscales for the two levels, which were (a) LSI:

motivation and purpose for listening, lack of focus or detachment, understanding and perception, and logic or organizational ability; and

(b) HURIER: hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and responding. Each LSI item was cross tabulated with its HURIER counterpart component. A scatter plot was developed for each item using the mean and corresponding listening score. PPMC (r) was used to determine intercorrelations between the LSI dimensions of perceived listening and the HURIER components of the listening survey.

Listening Styles Inventory: Listening Styles/Effectiveness

The LSI comprises 10 questions, and those regarding a specific dimension of listening effectiveness (see Table 1) were distributed as (a) motivation and purpose for listening, (b) lack of focus or detachment, (c) understanding and perception, and (d) logic or organizational ability. The overall dimensions of perceived listening, as shown in Table 24, had a mean of 3.78 ($SD = .39$) with a minimum of 2.2 and a maximum of 4.8. This means that respondents agree with the listening styles/effectiveness survey.

Table 24

Summary of Listening Styles Inventory Score

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Overall LSI score	52	2.80	4.70	3.7808	.39459

Lack of Focus

Respondents had low agreement on the lack of focus (Table 25) factor, and the mean score was 3.56 ($SD = .66$). This means that respondents were attentive but sometimes not really engaged. The strongest responses came from

- LSI2: *I do not listen attentively when others are talking and*
- LSI8: *I cannot tell when a speaker's biases or attitudes are affecting his or her message.*

Table 25

Listening Styles/Effectiveness: Lack of Focus

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Lack of focus	52	2.00	5.00	3.5577	.66902

Logic or Organizational Ability

Logic or organizational ability (Table 26) was the strongest dimension that respondents selected. The mean score was 4.0 ($SD = .75$); participants showed the most frequent use of this factor. Of great interest is the response to

- LSI3: *By listening, I can guess a speaker's intent or purpose without being told.*

Table 26

Listening Styles/Effectiveness: Logic or Organizational Ability

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Logic or organizational ability	52	2.00	5.00	3.9808	.75382

Motivation or Purpose for Listening

Motivation or purpose for listening had the lowest standard deviation in the listening dimensions. Table 27 shows that this factor has a mean score of 3.8 ($SD = .54$) and a minimum of 2.20 and a maximum of 4.8. It compares favorably with the overall scale mean score of 3.8 ($SD = .39$). The strongest responses were from

- LSI1: *I want to listen to what others have to say when they are talking;*
- LSI4: *I have a purpose for listening when others are talking;*
- LSI5: *I keep control of my biases and attitudes when listening to others speak so that these factors won't affect my interpretation of the message;*
- LSI6: *I analyze my listening errors so as not to make them again; and*
- LSI7: *I listen to the complete message before making judgments about what the speaker has said.*

Table 27

Listening Styles/Effectiveness: Motivation or Purpose for Listening

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Motivation or purpose for listening	52	2.20	4.80	3.7846	.53847

Understanding and Perception

The reported use of understanding and perception by respondents, as presented in Table 28, has a mean score of 3.9 ($SD = .63$). The range of 3.5 in scores is the highest compared to the other scales. The strongest responses came from

- LSI9: *I ask questions when I don't fully understand a speaker's message and*
- LSI10: *I am aware of whether or not a speaker's meaning of words and concepts is the same as mine.*

Table 28

Listening Styles/Effectiveness: Understanding and Perception

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Understanding and perception	52	1.50	5.00	3.8942	.62885

HURIER: Listening Effectiveness

The HURIER questionnaire comprises 36 questions that are grouped into six listening effectiveness components, each of which contains six questions (see Table 29). The overall dimensions of perceived listening, as shown in Table 30, had a mean of 3.8

($SD = .39$) with a minimum of 2.8 and a maximum of 4.7. This means that respondents agree with the listening effectiveness survey.

Table 29

HURIER Components and Questions

Hearing	4, 15, 16, 20, 24, 33	Understanding	5, 11, 25, 28, 32, 36
Remembering	3, 7, 10, 18, 31, 35	Interpreting	2, 12, 14, 17, 21, 30
Evaluating	1, 8, 22, 23, 29, 34	Responding	6, 9, 13, 19, 26, 27

Table 30

Overall of HURIER Listening Score

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Overall HURIER listening score	52	2.08	4.47	3.5438	.40618

Hearing

The hearing component had a mean of 3.6 ($SD = .54$) with a minimum of 1.8 and a maximum of 4.3 (Table 31). Therefore, it is a component that respondents take into consideration when listening.

Table 31

Listening Effectiveness: Hearing

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Hearing	52	1.83	4.33	3.5641	.53845

Understanding

Elaboration had the second highest mean score and the second lowest standard deviation in the HURIER listening questionnaire. Table 32 shows the mean score of 3.7 ($SD = .47$). This means that participants agree that understanding is a necessary skill.

Table 32

Listening Effectiveness: Understanding

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Understanding	52	2.00	4.50	3.6731	.47251

Remembering

Remembering is the second highest standard deviation. This means that respondents agree that remembering is a significant listening skill. Table 33 shows the mean score of 3.5 ($SD = .57$) that compares favorably with the highest standard deviation 3.4 ($SD = .58$).

Table 33

Listening Effectiveness: Remembering

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Remembering	52	1.33	4.83	3.4968	.56927

Interpreting

Interpreting was not heavily used by the respondents; it had the second lowest score of the HURIER component. A mean score of 3.4 ($SD = .58$) indicated that students do not often use this listening tool (Table 34).

Table 34

Listening Effectiveness: Interpreting

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Interpreting	52	2.00	4.83	3.3654	.58395

Evaluating

Table 35 shows that, overall, low mean scores were reported for this factor. The mean for evaluating is 3.3 ($SD = .56$), below the overall score of the HURIER listening effectiveness factors 3.5 ($SD = .41$).

Table 35

Listening Effectiveness: Evaluating

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Evaluating	52	2.00	4.67	3.3365	.56543

Responding

Responding had the highest mean score and the second lowest standard deviation in the scale; it was the component most often used by the participants. Table 36 shows the mean score of 3.8 ($SD = .46$); this means that respondents agree that responding, as a listening factor, occurs more often than the other factors.

Table 36

Listening Effectiveness: Responding

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Responding	52	2.33	4.67	3.8269	.46202

Relationship: Listening Styles/Effectiveness and Listening Effectiveness

The PPMC (r) was used to identify possible relationships between listening styles/effectiveness (LSI) and listening effectiveness (HURIER). Pearson's r was calculated by two factors—LSI and HURIER. For the listening styles/effectiveness (LSI) variable, motivation or purpose for listening, lack of focus or detachment, understanding and perception, and logic or organizational ability were used. For the HURIER variable, the components for measuring listening effectiveness were hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and responding.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Hearing

Table 37 shows the statistical analyses of the motivation or purpose (a) for listening from the LSI and (b) for hearing from the HURIER. PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and hearing. There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables, ($r = .20$, $N = 52$, $p = .16$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 1). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and hearing.

Table 37

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Hearing

		Hearing
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.202
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151
N		52

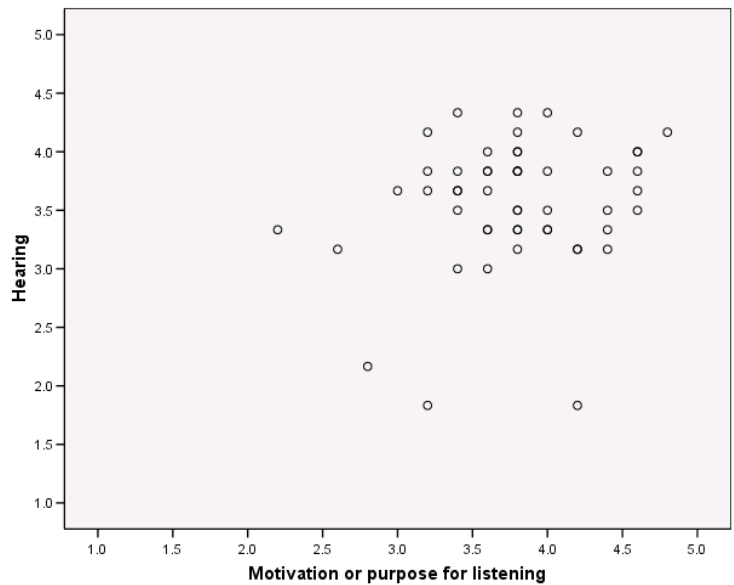


Figure 1. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and hearing.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Understanding

From the data presented in Table 38, several interesting facts arise. The PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and understanding. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .39, N = 52, p = .004$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 2). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening

and understanding.

Table 38

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Understanding

		Understanding
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.388(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
	<i>N</i>	52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

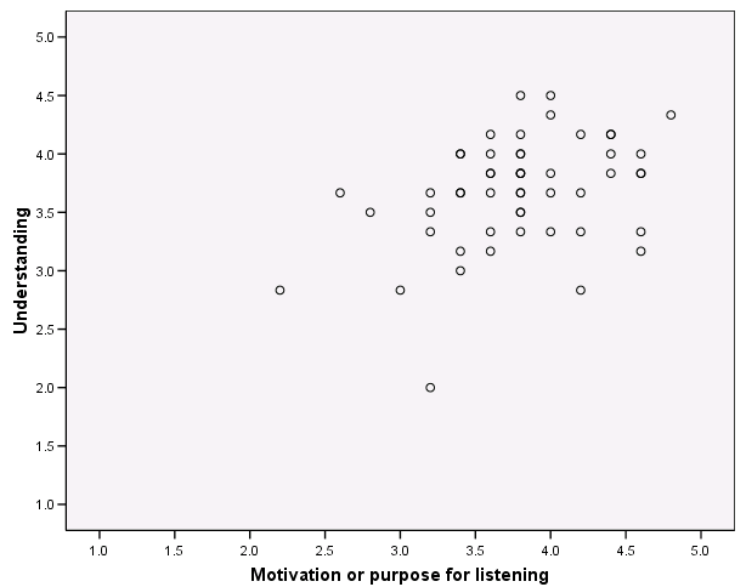


Figure 2. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and understanding.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Remembering

The PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and remembering (see Table 39). There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables, ($r = .29$, $N = 52$, $p = .03$). The scatter plot in

Figure 3 indicates that there was a weak positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and remembering.

Table 39

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Remembering

		Remembering
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.294(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.034
<i>N</i>		52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

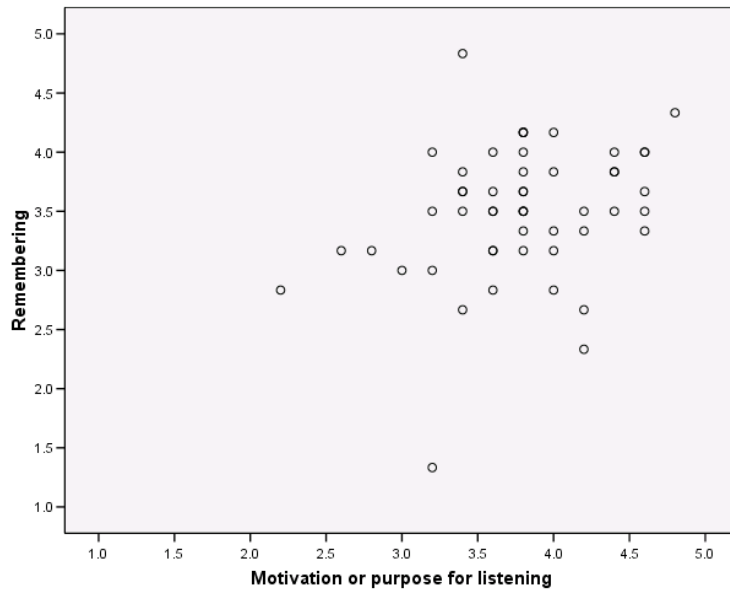


Figure 3. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and remembering.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Interpreting

The strongest correlation was computed through PPMC to assess the relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and interpreting (see Table 40). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables, ($r = .50$, $N = 52$, $p = .00$).

The scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 4). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and interpreting.

Table 40

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Interpreting

		Interpreting
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.500(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
<i>N</i>		52
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

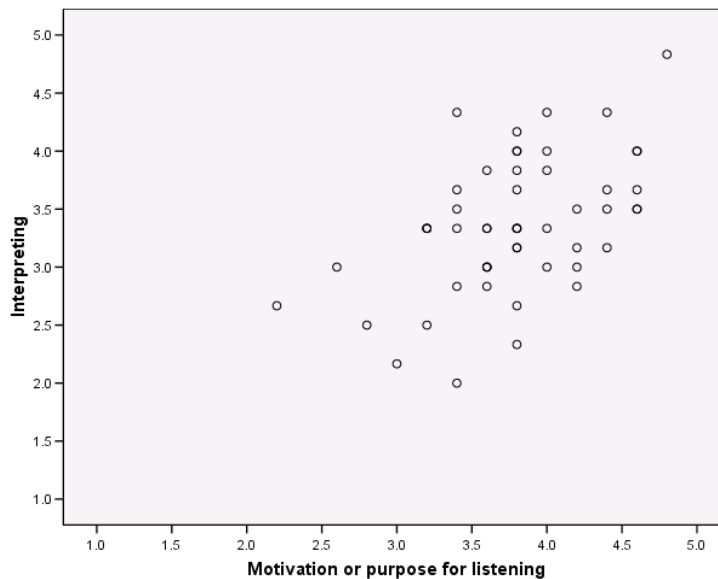


Figure 4. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and interpreting.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Evaluating

The relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and evaluating (see Table 41) was computed using PPMC. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .33$, $N = 52$, $p = .02$). A scatter plot summarizes the

results (Figure 5). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and evaluating.

Table 41

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Evaluating

		Evaluating
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.333(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016
	<i>N</i>	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

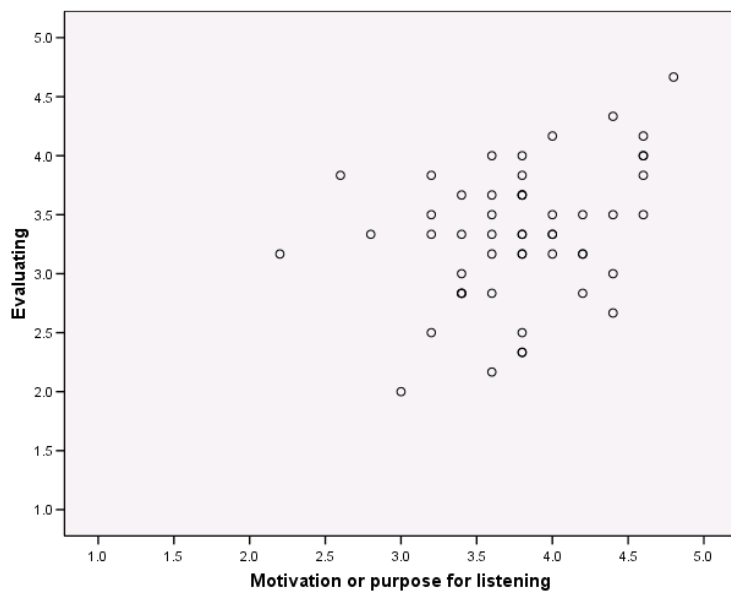


Figure 5. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and evaluating.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and Responding

The PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between motivation or purpose for listening and responding (see Table 42). There was a no or negligible

relationship between the two variables ($r = .16$, $N = 52$, $p = .25$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 6). Overall, there was a no or negligible correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and responding.

Table 42

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and Responding

	Responding
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation .162
	Sig. (2-tailed) .250
<i>N</i>	52

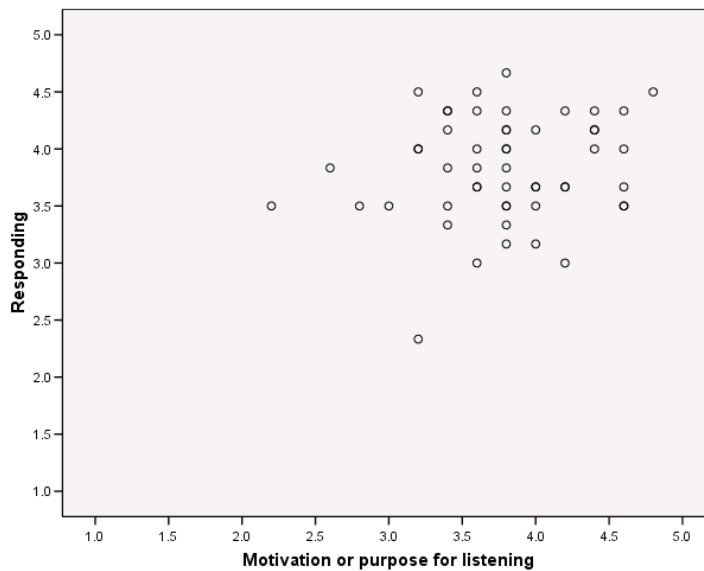


Figure 6. Scatter plot of motivation or purpose for listening and responding.

Motivation or Purpose for Listening and the Overall HURIER Listening Score

A strong positive correlation (see Table 43) exists between motivation or purpose for listening and the overall HURIER listening score ($r = .42$, $N = 52$, $p = .002$) was established through PPMC. This would indicate that respondents with strong motivation

or purpose for listening and the HURIER questionnaire tend to have strong interpreting scores. A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 7). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between motivation or purpose for listening and the overall HURIER score.

Table 43

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Motivation and the Overall HURIER Listening Skills

		Overall HURIER listening score
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.417(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

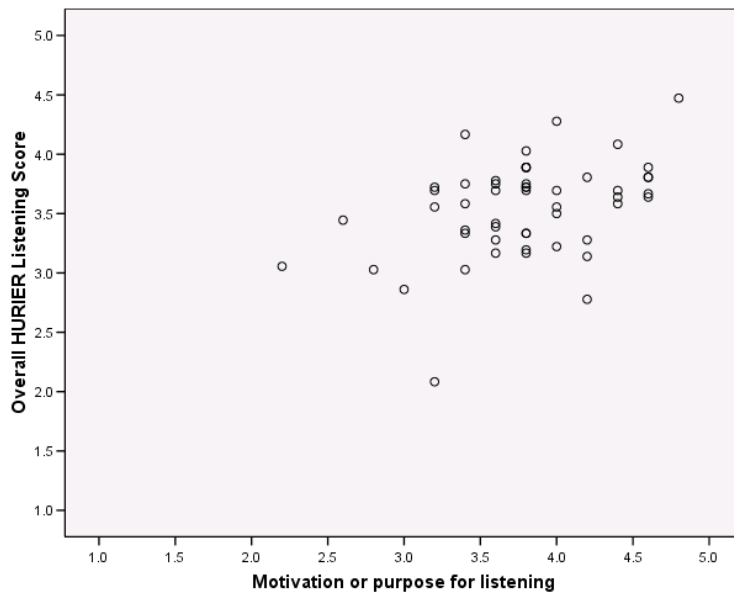


Figure 7. Motivation or purpose for listening and overall HURIER listening score.

Lack of Focus and Hearing

There was a no or negligible relationship between the two variables, lack of focus and hearing ($r = .02$, $N = 52$, $p = .88$). A PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between lack of focus and the hearing listening score (see Table 44). The scatter plot indicates the low results (Figure 8). Overall, there was a no or negligible correlation between lack of focus and the hearing listening skill.

Table 44

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Hearing

		Hearing
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.881
	N	52

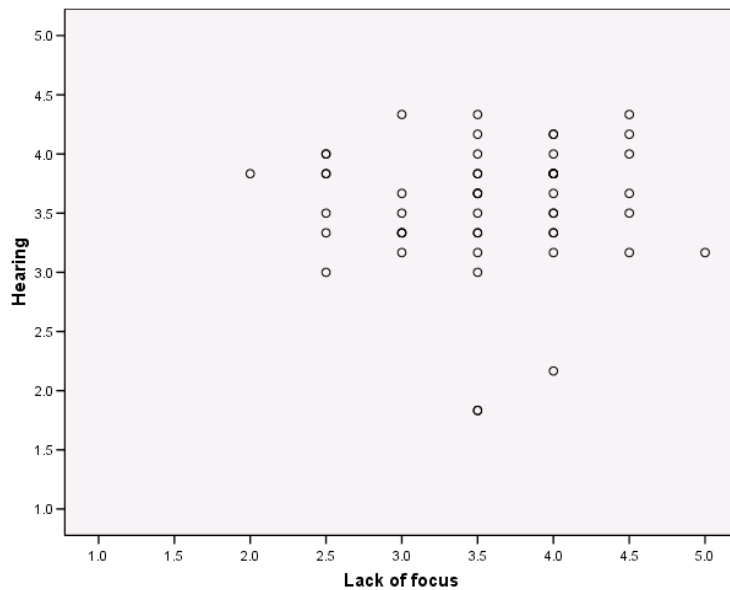


Figure 8. Scatter plot of lack of focus and hearing.

Lack of Focus and Understanding

The relationship between lack of focus and the understanding listening score (see Table 45) was computed through PPMC. There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables, ($r = .22$, $N = 52$, $p = .12$). The scatter plot summarizes the findings (Figure 9). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between lack of focus and the understanding listening skill.

Table 45

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Understanding

		Understanding
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.216
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124
N		52

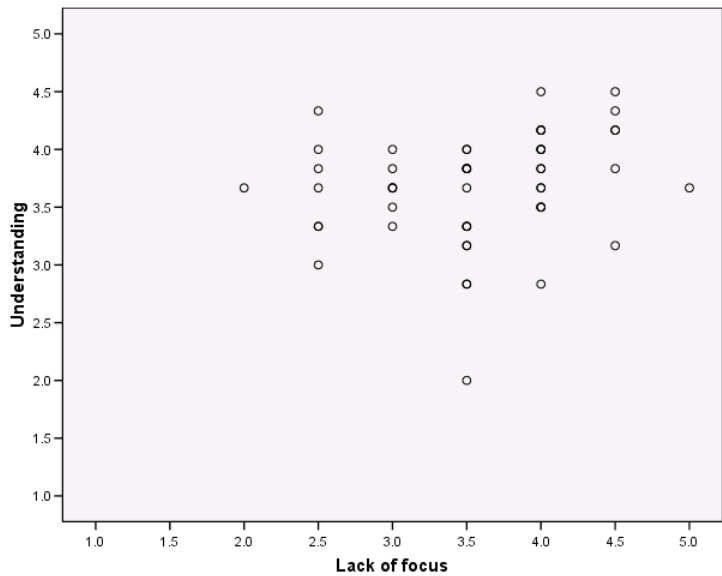


Figure 9. Scatter plot of lack of focus and understanding.

Lack of Focus and Remembering

The PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between lack of focus and remembering (see Table 46). There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .20, N = 52, p = .15$). The scatter plot for the lack of focus and remembering shown in Figure 10 established a weak positive correlation between the variables.

Table 46

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Remembering

		Remembering
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.202
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151
	N	52

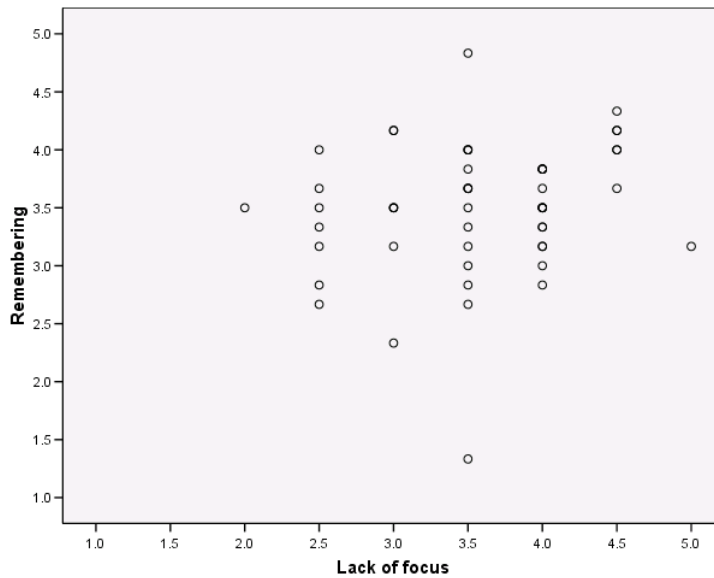


Figure 10. Scatter plot of lack of focus and remembering.

Lack of Focus and Interpreting

The PPMC showed a relationship between lack of focus and the interpreting listening score (see Table 47). There was a no or negligible relationship between the two variables ($r = .18$, $N = 52$, $p = .19$). The scatter plot in Figure 11 summarizes the results. Overall, there was a no or negligible correlation between lack of focus and interpreting listening skill.

Table 47

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Interpreting

		Interpreting
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.193
	<i>N</i>	52

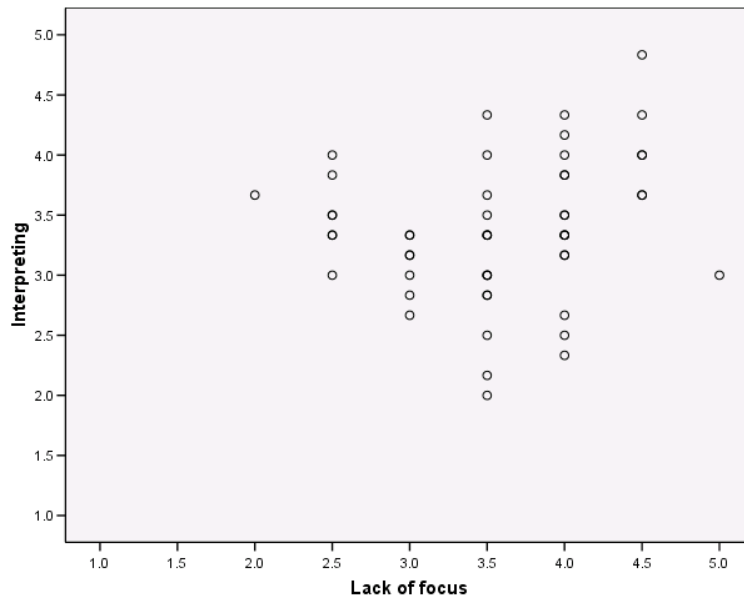


Figure 11. Scatter plot of lack of focus and interpreting.

Lack of Focus and Evaluating

The scores for lack of focus and evaluating listening (see Table 48) were correlated using the PPMC. There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .20$, $N = 52$, $p = .15$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 12). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between lack of focus and understanding.

Table 48

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Evaluating

		Evaluating
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.203
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.150
	<i>N</i>	52

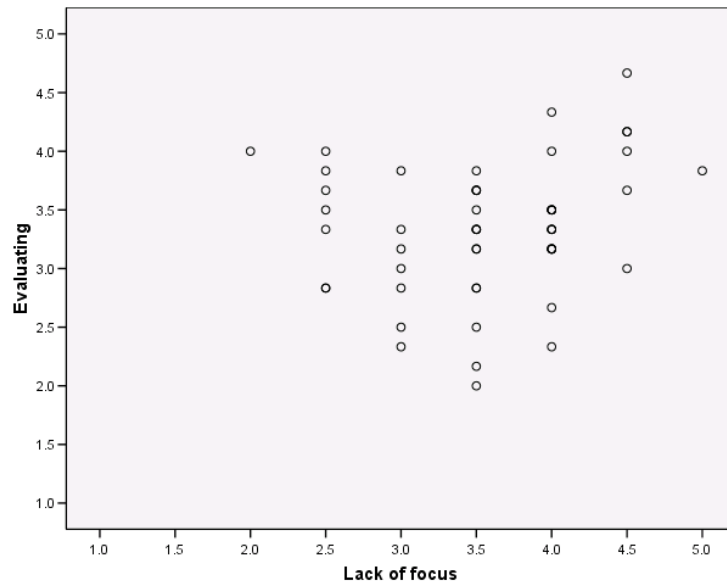


Figure 12. Scatter plot of lack of focus and evaluating.

Lack of Focus and Responding

The relationship between lack of focus and the responding listening score (see Table 49) was computed using PPMC. There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .20$, $N = 52$, $p = .16$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 13). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between lack of focus and the responding listening skill.

Table 49

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Responding

		Responding
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.197
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.162
N		52

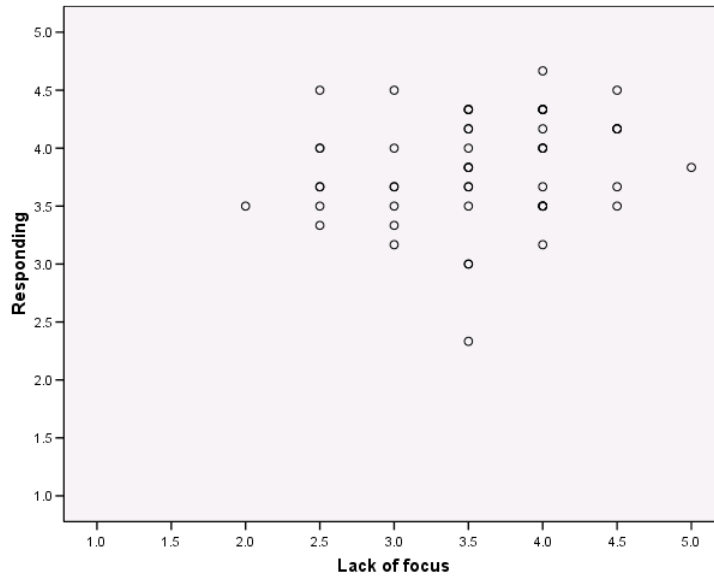


Figure 13. Scatter plot of lack of focus and responding.

Lack of Focus and the Overall HURIER Listening Score

The relationship between lack of focus and the overall listening score (see Table 50) was computed by PPMC. There was a weak positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .22$, $N = 52$, $p = .11$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 14). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between lack of focus and the overall listening skills.

Table 50

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Lack of Focus and Overall HURIER Listening Score

		Overall HURIER listening score
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.222
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.114
<i>N</i>		52

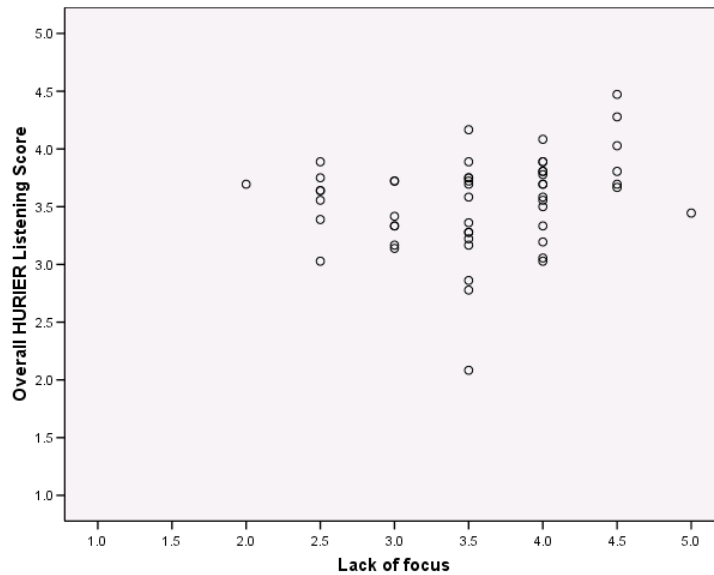


Figure 14. Scatter plot of lack of focus and overall HURIER score.

Understanding and Perception and Hearing

The relationship between understanding and perception and the hearing listening score (see Table 51) was computed by PPMC. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .34$, $N = 52$, $p = .01$). A scatter plot

summarizes the results (Figure 15). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between understanding and perception and hearing.

Table 51

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Hearing

		Hearing
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.344(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
N		52
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		

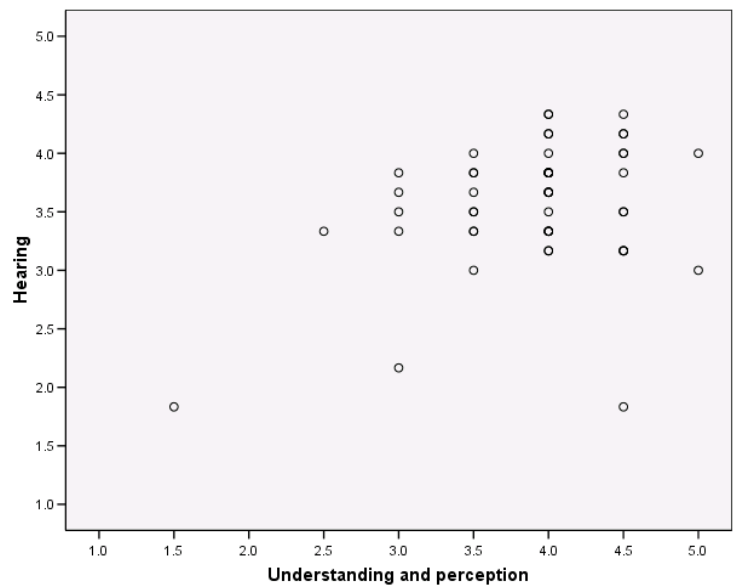


Figure 15. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and hearing.

Understanding and Perception and Understanding

Table 52 shows the relationship between understanding and perception and the understanding listening skill according to the PPMC computed scores. There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .43$, $N = 52$, $p = .002$).

A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 16). In general, there was a strong positive correlation between understanding and perception and understanding.

Table 52

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Understanding

		Understanding
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.426(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

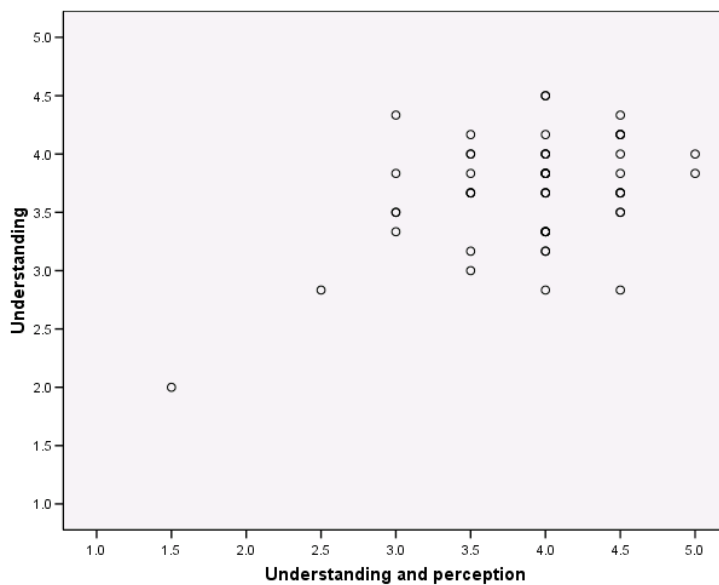


Figure 16. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and understanding.

Understanding and Perception and Remembering

The PPMC was used to assess the relationship between understanding and perception and the remembering listening skill (see Table 53). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .51$, $N = 52$, $p = .00$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 17). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between lack of focus and the overall listening score. This means that more respondents associate understanding and perception with remembering.

Table 53

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Remembering

		Remembering
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.506(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

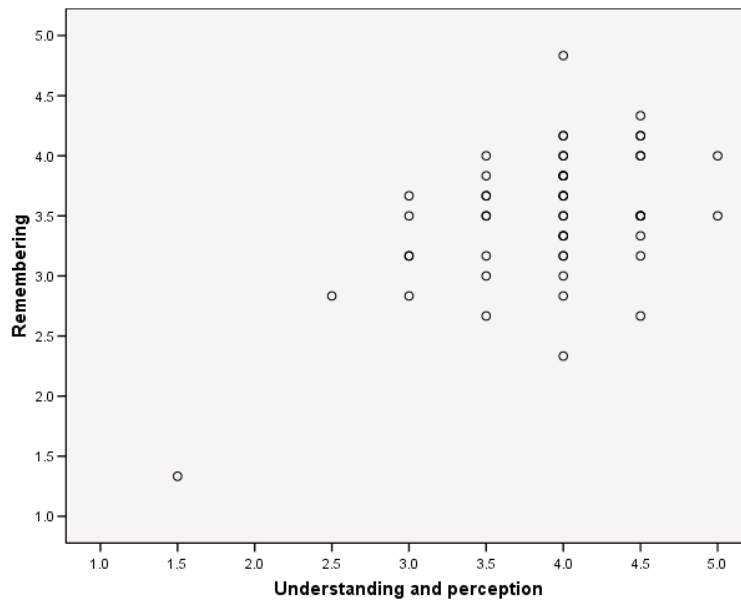


Figure 17. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and remembering.

Understanding and Perception and Interpreting

The data computed by PPMC and presented in Table 54 shows a weak positive relationship between understanding and perception and the interpreting listening skill ($r = .17$, $N = 52$, $p = .24$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 18). Overall, there was a weak positive correlation between understanding and perception and the interpreting listening skill.

Table 54

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Interpreting

		Interpreting
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.165
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242
	<i>N</i>	52

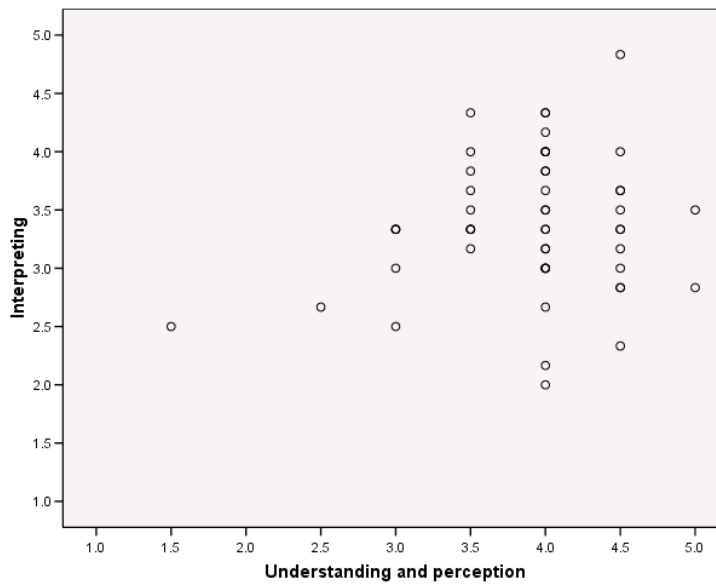


Figure 18. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and interpreting.

Understanding and Perception and Evaluating

The relationship between understanding and perception and the evaluating listening skill (see Table 55) indicated that there was no or negligible relationship between the two variables ($r = .001$, $N = 52$, $p = 1.0$). A scatter plot summarizes the low results (Figure 19). Overall, there was no or negligible correlation between understanding and perception and the evaluating listening skill.

Table 55

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Evaluating

		Evaluating
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.995
	N	52

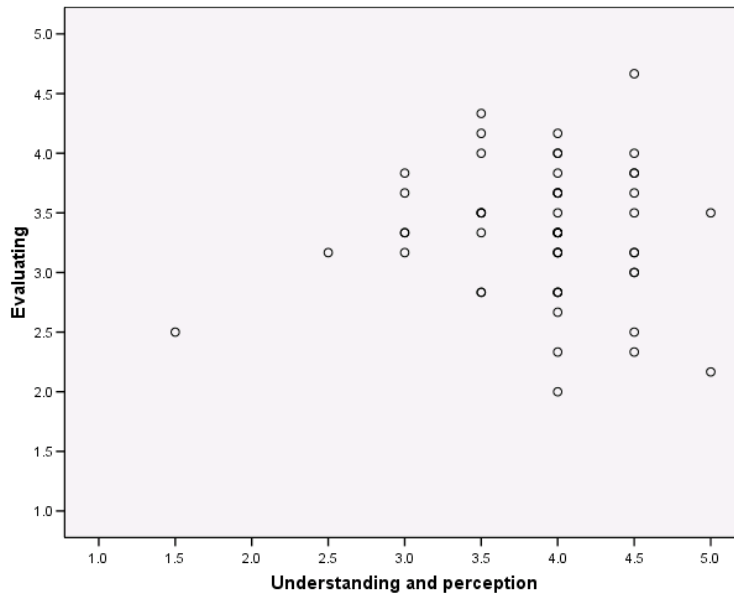


Figure 19. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and evaluating.

Understanding and Perception and Responding

A PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between understanding and perception and the responding listening skill (see Table 56). There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .32$, $N = 52$, $p = .02$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 20). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between understanding and perception and the responding listening skill.

Table 56

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Responding

		Responding
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.324(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019
	<i>N</i>	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

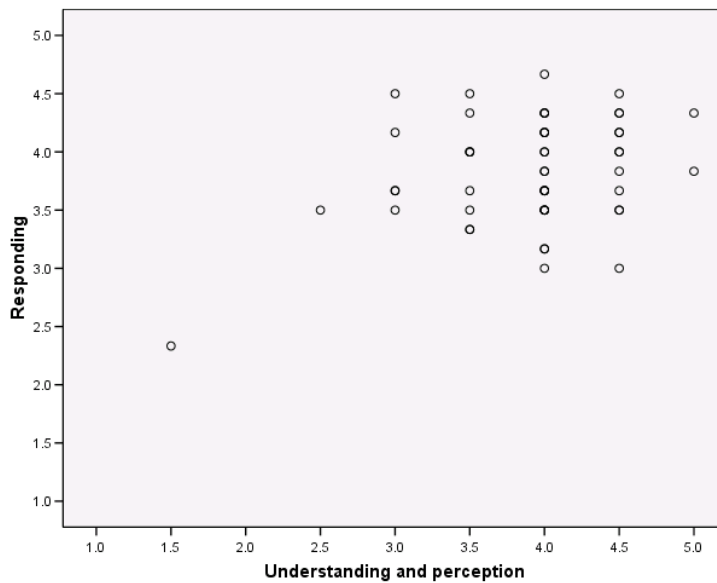


Figure 20. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and responding.

Understanding and Perception and Overall HURIER Listening Score

The PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between understanding and perception and the overall HURIER listening questionnaire skills (see Table 57). There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .38$, $N = 52$, $p = .006$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 21). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between understanding and perception and the overall HURIER questionnaire skills.

Table 57

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Understanding and Perception and Overall HURIER Listening Score

		Overall HURIER listening score
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.378(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

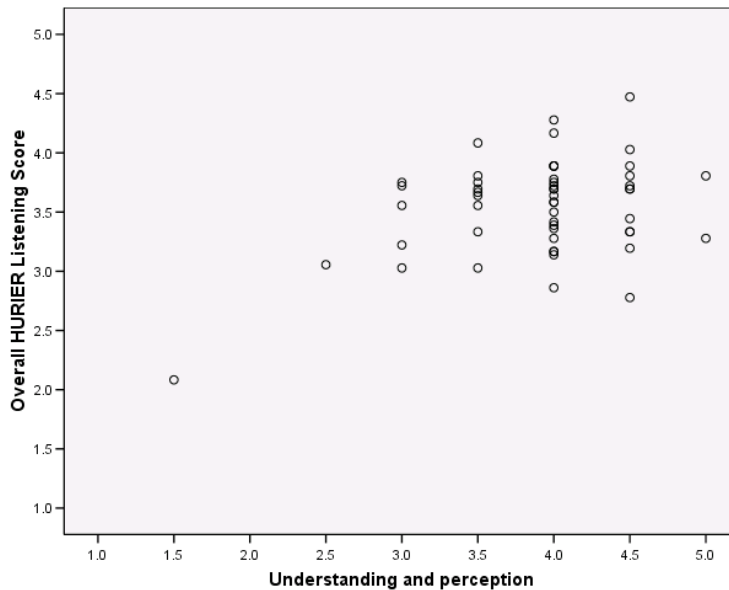


Figure 21. Scatter plot of understanding and perception and the overall listening score.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Hearing

The relationship between logic or organizational ability and the hearing listening skill (see Table 58) was computed using PPMC. There was a low–moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .30$, $N = 52$, $p = .03$). A scatter plot

summarizes the results (Figure 22). Overall, there was a low–moderate positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and the hearing listening skill.

Table 58

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Hearing

		Hearing
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation	.301(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030
	<i>N</i>	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

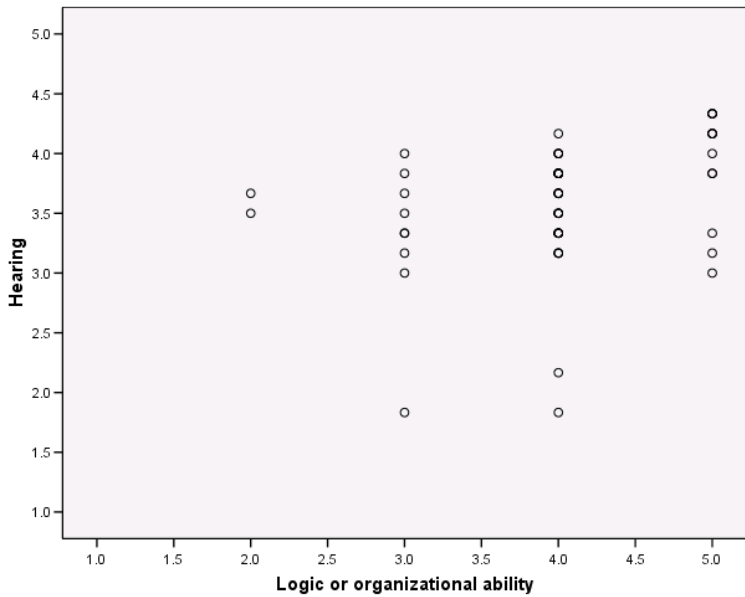


Figure 22. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and hearing.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Understanding

The PPMC was used to assess the relationship between logic or organizational ability and the understanding listening skills (see Table 59). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .42$, $N = 52$, $p = .002$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 23). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and understanding.

Table 59

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Understanding

		Understanding
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson Correlation	.422(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

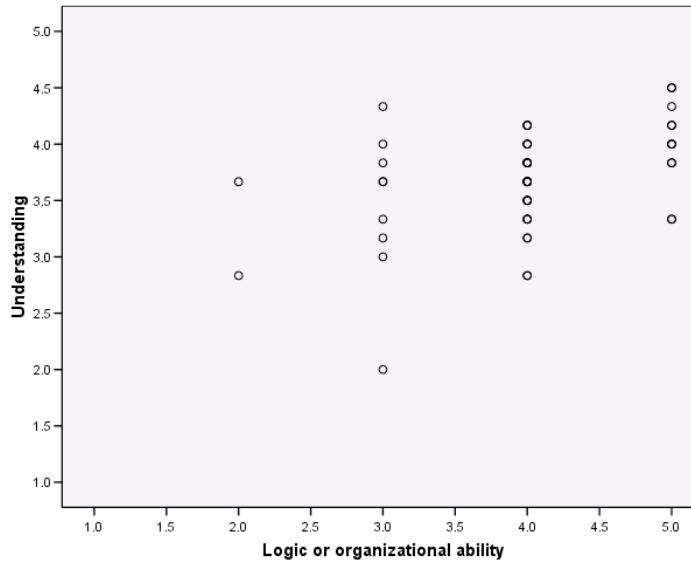


Figure 23. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and understanding.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Remembering

A PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between logic or organizational ability and remembering (see Table 60). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .54$, $N = 52$, $p = .00$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 24). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and the remembering listening score.

Table 60

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Remembering

		Remembering
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation	.541(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	<i>N</i>	52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

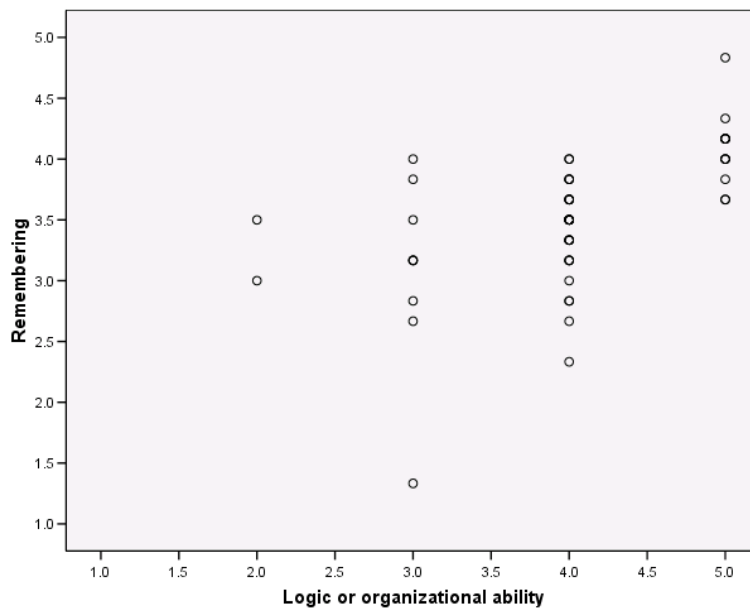


Figure 24. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and remembering.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Interpreting

A PPMC correlation was computed to assess the relationship between logic or organizational ability and interpreting (see Table 61). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .40$, $N = 52$, $p = .003$). A scatter plot

summarizes the results (Figure 25). Overall, there was a strong correlation between logic or organizational ability and the interpreting listening score.

Table 61

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Interpreting

		Interpreting
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation	.402(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003
	<i>N</i>	52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

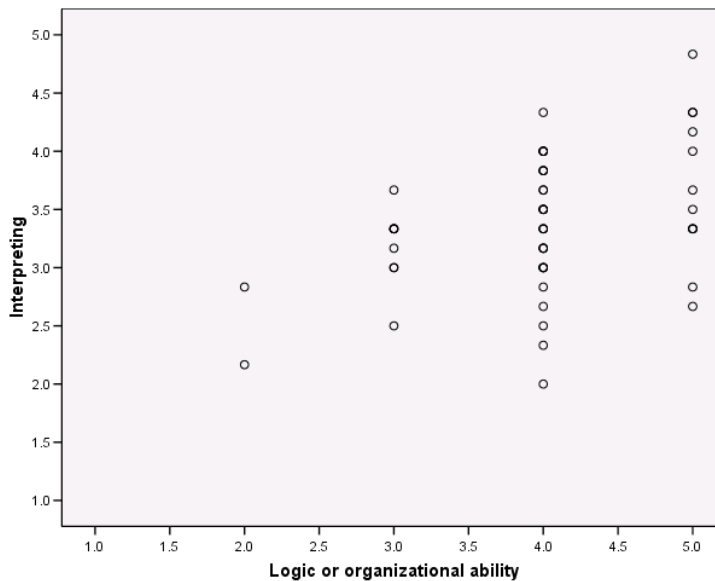


Figure 25. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and interpreting.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Evaluating

The relationship between logic or organizational ability and the evaluating listening skill was computed using PPMC (see Table 62). There was a no or negligible

relationship between the two variables ($r = .13, N = 52, p = .36$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 26). Overall, there was a no or negligible positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and the evaluating listening score.

Table 62

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Evaluating

Evaluating	
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation .130
	Sig. (2-tailed) .357
N	52

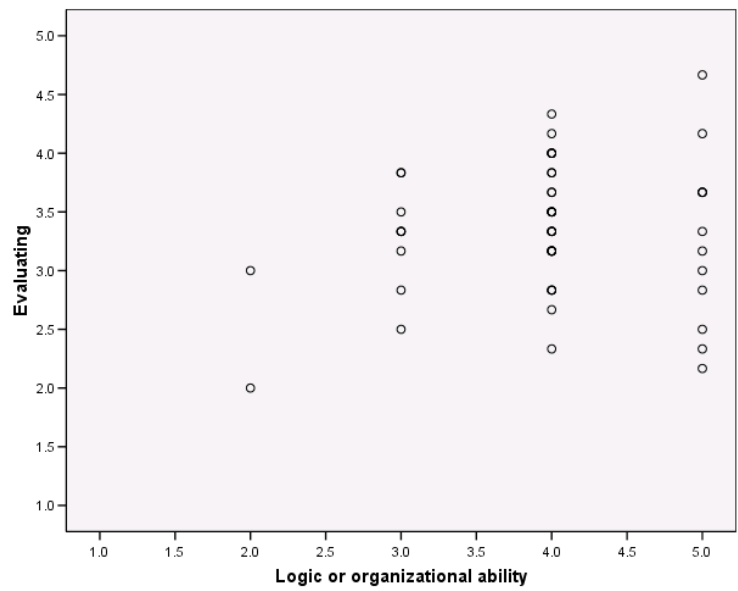


Figure 26. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and evaluating.

Logic or Organizational Ability and Responding

To assess the relationship between logic or organizational ability and the responding (see Table 63) listening skill, PPMC was computed. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .32$, $N = 52$, $p = .02$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 27). Overall there was a moderate positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and responding.

Table 63

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Responding

	Responding
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation .319(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed) .021
<i>N</i>	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

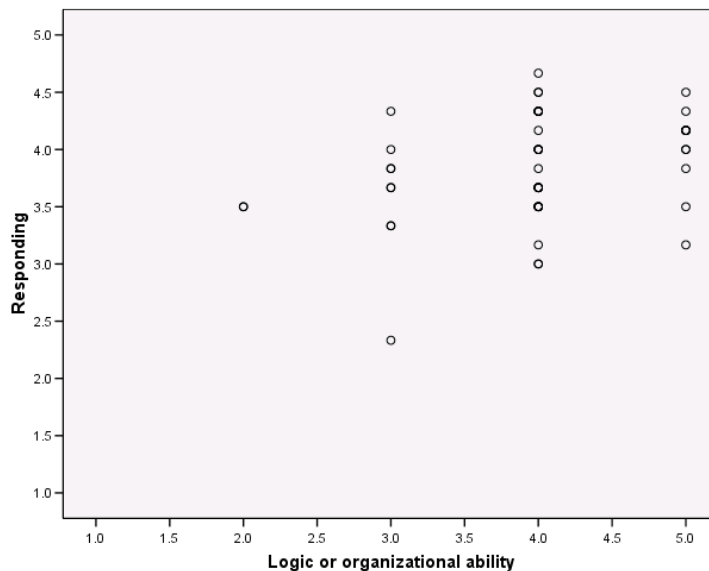


Figure 27. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and responding.

Logic or Organizational Ability and the Overall HURIER Listening Score

The PPMC was used to assess the relationship between logic or organizational ability and the overall HURIER (see Table 64) listening score. There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .46$, $N = 52$, $p = .001$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 28). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between logic or organizational ability and the overall HURIER listening score.

Table 64

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Logic or Organizational Ability and Overall HURIER Listening Score

		Overall HURIER listening score
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation	.462(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	<i>N</i>	52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

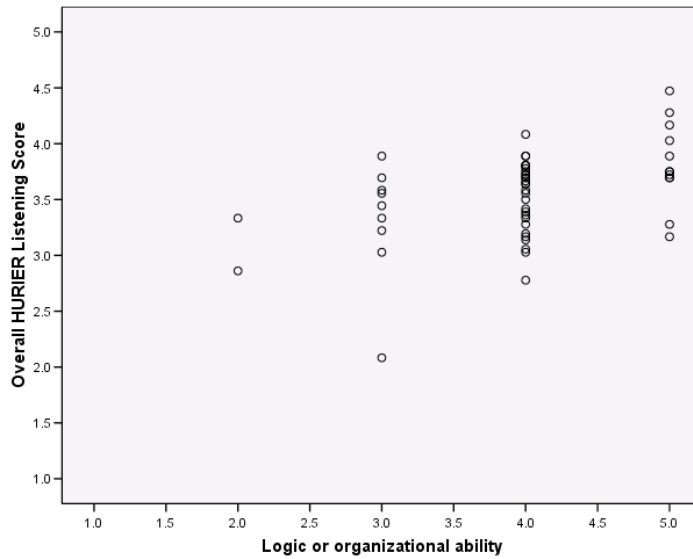


Figure 28. Scatter plot of logic or organizational ability and the overall HURIER listening score.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Score and Hearing

The relationship between hearing and the overall LSI score (see Table 65) was computed using PPMC. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .31$, $N = 52$, $p = .024$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 29). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between hearing and the overall listening styles inventory score.

Table 65

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall LSI Skills and Hearing

		Hearing
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.312(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024
N		52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

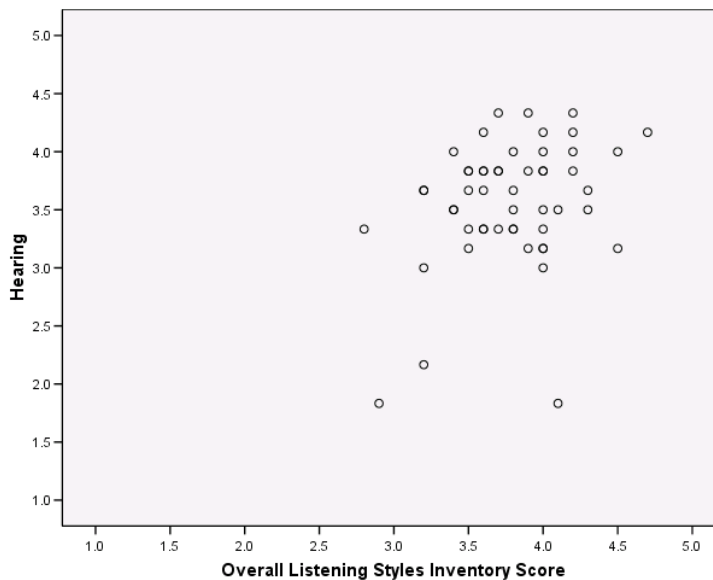


Figure 29. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory skills and hearing.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Scores and Understanding

The PPMC was used to assess the relationship between understanding and the overall LSI score (see Table 66). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .55$, $N = 52$, $p = .000$). Overall there was a strong positive correlation

(Figure 30) between understanding and the overall listening styles inventory skills.

Increases in understanding were related to the listening styles inventory score.

Table 66

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall LSI Score and Understanding

		Understanding
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.555(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
<i>N</i>		52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

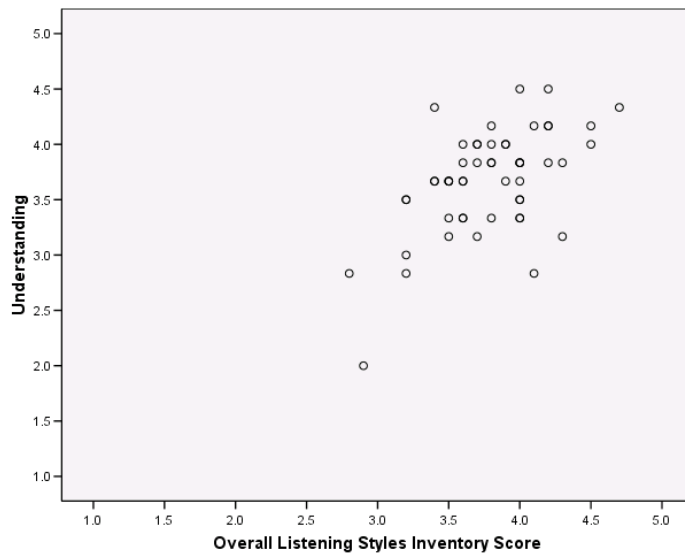


Figure 30. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory score and understanding.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Score and Remembering

The PPMC was used to assess the relationship between remembering and the overall LSI score (see Table 67). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables, ($r = .53$, $N = 52$, $p = .000$). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation

(Figure 31) between remembering and the overall listening styles inventory score.

Increases in remembering were related to the listening styles inventory score.

Table 67

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall LSI Score and Remembering

		Remembering
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.534(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
<i>N</i>		52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

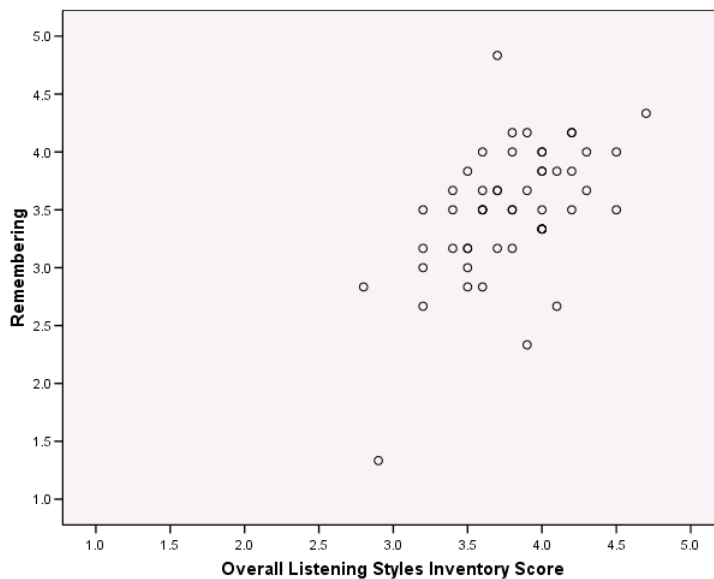


Figure 31. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory score and remembering.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Skills and Interpreting

A PPMC was computed to assess the relationship between interpreting and the overall LSI score (see Table 68). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .53$, $N = 52$, $p = .00$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure

32). Overall, there was a strong positive correlation between interpreting and the overall listening styles inventory skills. Increases in interpreting were related to the listening styles inventory score.

Table 68

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall LSI Score and Interpreting

		Interpreting
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.533(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
<i>N</i>		52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

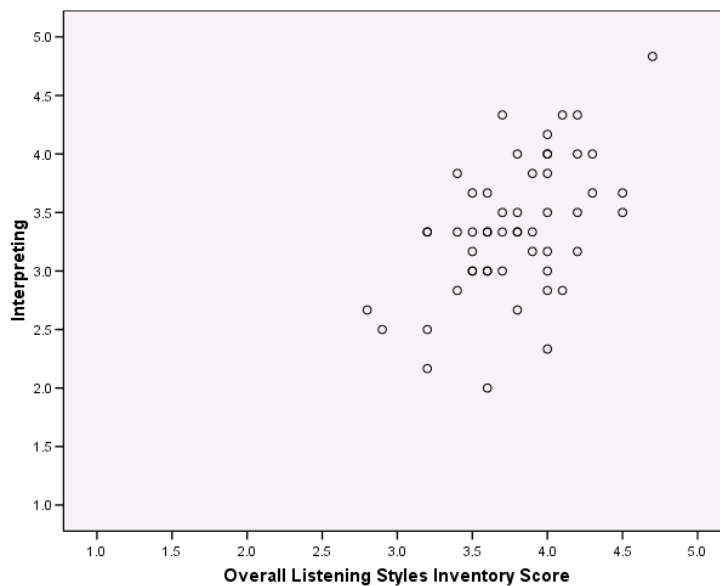


Figure 32. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory score and interpreting.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Score and Evaluating

The relationship between evaluating and the overall LSI score (see Table 69) was computed using PPMC. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two

variables ($r = .32, N = 52, p = .020$). A scatter plot summarizes the results (Figure 33). Overall, there was a moderate positive correlation between evaluating and the overall listening styles inventory score.

Table 69

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall Listening Styles Inventory Score and Evaluating

		Evaluating
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.321(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020
N		52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

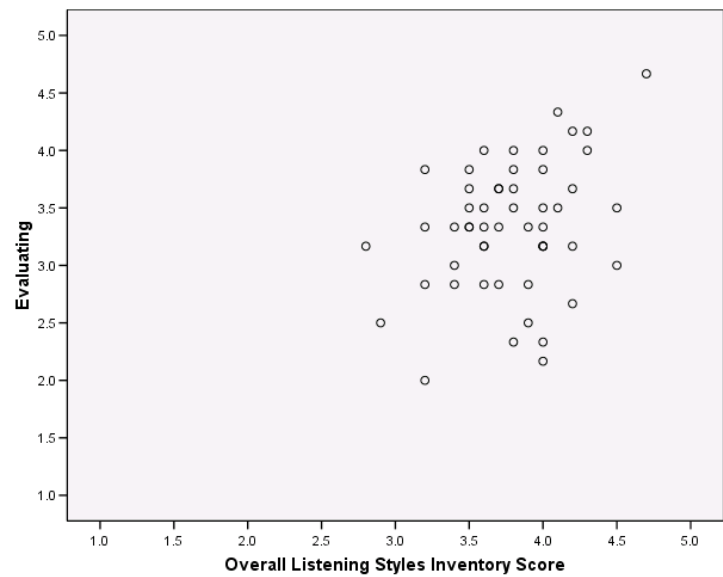


Figure 33. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory score and evaluating.

Overall Listening Styles Inventory Skills and Responding

To assess the relationship between responding and the overall LSI score (see Table 70) PPMC was computed. There was a moderate positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .34$, $N = 52$, $p = .013$). A scatter plot summarizes the results. Overall there was a moderate positive correlation (Figure 34) between responding and the overall listening styles inventory score.

Table 70

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall Listening Styles Inventory Score and Responding

		Responding
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.342(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
	<i>N</i>	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

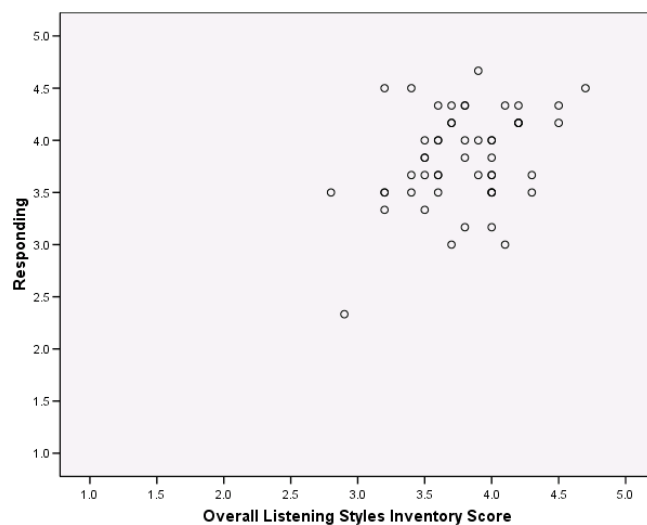


Figure 34. Scatter plot of overall listening styles inventory score and responding.

Overall LSI Listening Styles/Effectiveness Score and Overall HURIER

Listening Effectiveness Score

The relationship between overall listening styles/effectiveness—LSI scores—and overall listening effectiveness—HURIER scores—was computed using PPMC (see Table 71). There was a strong positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .57$, $N = 52$, $p = .00$). The scatter plot in Figure 35 summarizes the strong positive correlation between listening styles/effectiveness (LSI) and listening effectiveness (HURIER).

Table 71

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of Overall LSI Score and Overall HURIER Score

		Overall HURIER listening effectiveness score
Overall listening styles/effectiveness LSI score	Pearson correlation	.568(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	<i>N</i>	52

****** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

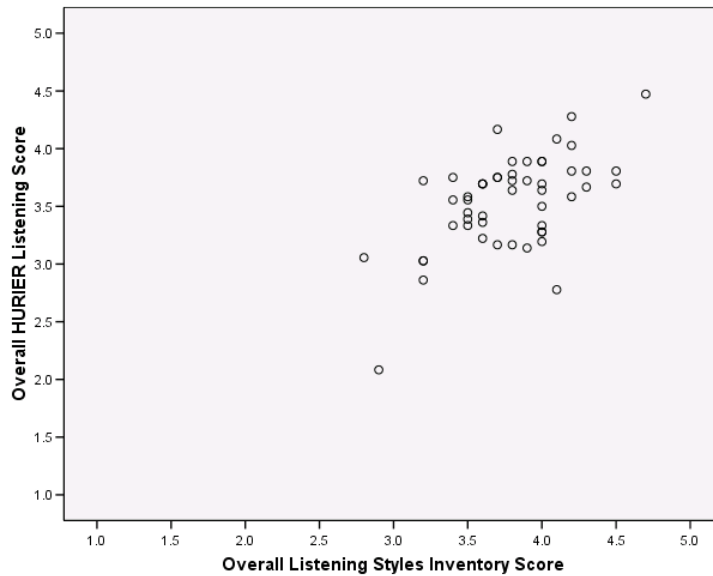


Figure 35. Scatter plot of the overall HURIER listening score and the overall listening styles inventory score.

Research Question 3

Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish? The third research question was addressed to identify if there is a significant relationship between LSI, HURIER and DLPT5 scores. The data were analyzed at two levels:

1. Dimensions of perceived listening (LSI): motivation or purpose for listening, lack of focus, understanding and perception, logic or organizational ability, overall scores, and listening comprehension scores from the DLPT5.
2. Components of the HURIER listening survey: hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, overall scores, and responding; and the listening comprehension scores from the DLPT5.

To answer the third research question, each level of analysis was considered first by survey and then in aggregate.

Each of the LSI and HURIER items was tabulated with the DLPT5 scores. The PPMC was used to determine intercorrelations between listening styles/effectiveness (LSI), listening effectiveness (HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (DLPT5).

Listening Comprehension Scores (DLPT5)

Of the 52 students in the study, 9 (see Table 72) did not get approved to continue in the second language Spanish Program. Half the group ($n = 26$) had a passing grade, and 33% exceeded the standard score for basic students. Table 73 shows the mean score of 21.9 ($SD = 4.7$).

Table 72

Listening Comprehension Scores (DLPT5)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	16	9	17.3	17.3	17.3
	20	26	50.0	50.0	67.3
	26	9	17.3	17.3	84.6
	30	8	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Table 73

Listening Comprehension (DLPT5): Mean and Standard Deviation

<i>N</i>	Valid	52
	Missing	0
Mean		21.88
Std. deviation		4.609

**Dimension of Perceived Listening (LSI) and Listening
Comprehension (DLPT5) Scores**

The statistical analyses for the relationship between listening styles/effectiveness and listening comprehension scores are displayed in Table 74. The data presented in answering Research Question 3 indicate that no linearity existed in each of the dimensions of perceived listening scales. The strength and magnitude were computed using Pearson's r . The PPMC correlation coefficient for the overall listening styles/effectiveness and the listening comprehension scores showed a no or negligible relationship: $r = .12$, $N = 52$, $p = .40$.

Table 74

Dimension of Perceived Listening (LSI) and Listening Comprehension Scores (DLPT5)

		Listening comprehension
Motivation or purpose for listening	Pearson correlation	.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.425
	<i>N</i>	52
Lack of focus	Pearson correlation	.053
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.709
	<i>N</i>	52
Understanding and perception	Pearson correlation	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.873
	<i>N</i>	52
Logic or organizational ability	Pearson correlation	.090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.527
	<i>N</i>	52
Overall LSI score	Pearson correlation	.120
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.399
	<i>N</i>	52

Components of the HURIER Listening Survey and Listening Comprehension Scores

Table 75 displays the statistical analysis of the listening effectiveness components of the HURIER questionnaire and the listening comprehension scores from the DLPT5. The listening effectiveness and the listening comprehension scores had two positive r values. When expressed in terms of percentage of variance, 5.8% of academic achievement can be accounted for by understanding; 4.8% of the DLPT5 listening comprehension scores can be accounted for by responding. Understanding and responding had a weak positive relationship: $r = .24$, $N = 52$, $p = .09$, and $r = .22$, $N = 52$,

$p = .11$, respectively. Hearing, remembering, interpreting, and evaluating had a no or negligible relationship. The PPMC correlation coefficient for overall listening effectiveness and the listening comprehension scores showed a no or negligible relationship: $r = .19$, $N = 52$, $p = .18$.

Table 75

Components of the HURIER Listening Survey and Listening Comprehension Scores

		Listening comprehension
Hearing	Pearson correlation	.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.628
	<i>N</i>	52
Understanding	Pearson correlation	.237
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.090
	<i>N</i>	52
Remembering	Pearson correlation	.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.450
	<i>N</i>	52
Interpreting	Pearson correlation	.191
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.175
	<i>N</i>	52
Evaluating	Pearson correlation	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.697
	<i>N</i>	52
Responding	Pearson correlation	.224
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111
	<i>N</i>	52
Overall HURIER listening score	Pearson correlation	.187
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.184
	<i>N</i>	52

Notable Findings

Although not part of any research question, a Spearman's rho was conducted on each variable and its components:

- Listening styles/effectiveness (see Table 76)—motivation or purpose for listening, lack of focus, understanding and perception, and logic or organizational ability;
- Listening effectiveness (see Table 77)—hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and responding; as well as education and age. A no or negligible relationship correlation exists between listening styles/effectiveness and education and age, and a no or negligible relationship correlation exists between listening effectiveness and education and age.

Table 76

Listening Styles/Effectiveness (LSI), Education and Age: Spearman's rho

Spearman's rho			Education	Age
	Motivation or purpose for listening	Correlation coefficient	.105	.186
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.458	.187
		<i>N</i>	52	52
	Lack of focus	Correlation coefficient	.044	.139
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.755	.327
		<i>N</i>	52	52
	Understanding and perception	Correlation coefficient	-.175	.019
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.214	.891
		<i>N</i>	52	52
	Logic or organizational ability	Correlation coefficient	.043	.025
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.761	.862
		<i>N</i>	52	52
	Overall LSI score	Correlation coefficient	.005	.152
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.972	.281
		<i>N</i>	52	52

Table 77

Listening Effectiveness (HURIER), Education and Age: Spearman's rho

		Education	Age
Hearing	Correlation coefficient	-.012	.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.932	.845
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Understanding	Correlation coefficient	-.054	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.706	.986
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Remembering	Correlation coefficient	-.147	-.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.297	.667
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Interpreting	Correlation coefficient	-.016	-.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.909	.786
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Evaluating	Correlation coefficient	.026	-.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.855	.849
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Responding	Correlation coefficient	.027	.143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.847	.310
	<i>N</i>	52	52
Overall HURIER listening score	Correlation coefficient	-.061	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.669	.937
	<i>N</i>	52	52

Section 3: Qualitative Analysis

This section reports the findings from the LSI and HURIER feedback using Nvivo

10. The feedback consists of three questions developed to explore if the feedback was useful for the students:

1. Did you find the information that you received about your listening style and listening effectiveness to be valuable? If so, in what way?
2. Do you think that your participation in these surveys (the LSI and the HURIER) and the feedback that you received will help you improve your listening comprehension on the listening portion of the DLPT5? Please explain.

listening tests (11%); cultural perspective (7%); and lastly and equally, recalling the message and food and breathing (4% each). Examples of responses highlighting the importance of being focused are

- Participant 160 declared, *Focusing my attention on specific actions to take during the next exam is important;*
- Participant 170 maintained that she should *put up blinders to keep my attention focused;*
- Participant 230 said that he needs to *improve listening and pay more attention;*
- Participant 235 avowed to *focus on what I need to improve;*
- Participant 255 stated the need to *focus on how to strengthen weak areas;* and
- Participant 275 indicated that he needs to *leave [his] opinion out while listening to audios and allow the simple answer from the given audio.*

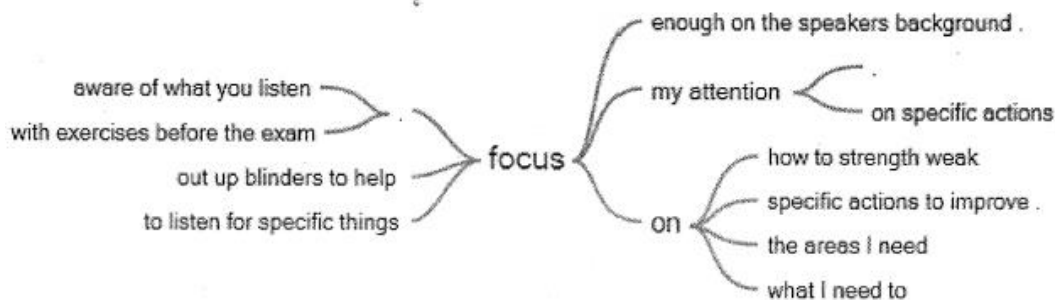


Figure 37. Valuable information received during the feedback: focus.

Participant responses indicated that relaxation played an important role:

- Participant 110 professed that by learning how to relax, he *learned how to control stress;*
- Participant 115 said, *Keeping a positive mental attitude is valuable;*
- Participant 170 affirmed that to *manage stress is important;*

- Participant 175 stated, *Proper relaxation techniques are useful;*
- Participant 180 said, *The night prior to an exam I need to be relaxed;*
- Participant 190 referred to *reduce stress with exercises before the exam;*
- Participant 195 maintained that the feedback was a *good reminder for things to remember prior and during the exam;* and
- Participant 250 established that the feedback was helping him to be *more physically prepared.*

Question Two

"Do you think that your participation in these surveys (the LSI and the HURIER) and the feedback that you received will help you improve your listening comprehension on the listening portion of the DLPT5? Please explain."

The qualitative data responses in Question 2 were grouped into five themes: break down listening, 41%; focus on areas that need improvement, 23%; testing strategies, 18%; self-assessment, 9%; and mental attitude, also 9%. The word frequency for these themes is illustrated in Table 78.

Table 78

Word Frequency Query for Information Received in Surveys

Word	Length	Count	Weighed percentage (%)	Similar words
action	7	1	12.50	action
focus	4	1	12.50	focus
improve	7	1	12.50	improve
keeping	6	1	12.50	keeping
mental	6	2	18.75	attitude
positive	8	2	18.75	attitude
specific	8	1	12.50	specific

Examples of responses pertaining to break down listening included

- Participant 105: *Be aware of what you listen to;*
- Participant 120: *It helps me better understand in easier ways;*
- Participant 160 maintained that the break down technique did *improve his listening, but having some narrowed down for me should help;*
- Participant 165 affirmed that to *reinforce these traits* [strengths and weaknesses];
- Participant 205 advised, *Break down listening by more than just what is being said;*
- Participant 235 mentioned that it is important to *remind* [oneself] *to listen for specific things;* and
- Participant 260 declared that *found weaknesses and potential solutions* were the benefits when taking the surveys and receiving the feedback of the LSI and the HURIER.

Twenty–three percent of participants selected focus as the key that helped them improve their listening in the DLPT5.

- Participant 105 maintained his need to *focus on specific actions to improve*,
- Participant 115 said that participation in these surveys does *help to pinpoint my difficulties*,
- Participant 190 advocated *focus on the areas I need to work on before the test*, and
- Participant 215 suggested it was important to *refocus attention towards listening strategies and make it a priority*.

Question Three

"Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the feedback on listening styles and listening effectiveness?"

Responses were focused on techniques and utility (see Figure 38). Participants made observations regarding techniques that need to be used when listening:

- Participant 120 stated, *It gave me some of the tools that I need*;
- Participant 200 professed, *Skills are valuable even in my native language —LSI and HURIER can be applied to both languages*;
- Participant 210 established that feedback *will help while attending two Spanish language courses at the University...and listening skills in a classroom setting reinforced the thoughts*; and
- Participant 260 said that listening techniques were useful to *find weaknesses and potential solutions*.

Examples of responses highlighting the utility of the feedback are

- Participant 125 said, *I would much rather have this information earlier in class;*
- Participant 205 concurred: *Do this earlier in the class;*
- Participant 240 mentioned that the feedback will *improve my understanding for the DLPT5;*
- Participant 245 said, *It gives a person a few techniques to improve their [sic] weak points;* and
- Participant 255 affirmed, *Feedback needs to be applied and then will be effective.*

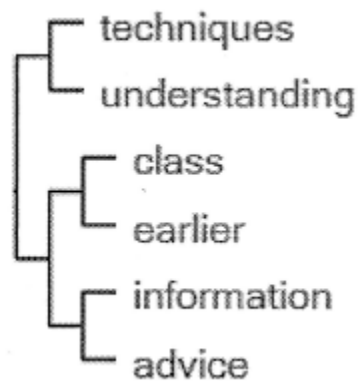


Figure 38. Feedback: techniques and utility.

Section 4: Summary of Findings

The data were used in three separate sections: the first section to compute the demographic information, the second to answer each of the three research questions, and the third to explore whether the LSI and HURIER feedback was useful for respondents.

The data for the first section revealed that (a) the majority of respondents were male (89%), (b) 43 respondents were under 30 years old, (c) 42 participants were Caucasian, and (d) 33 participants speak only English at home. Regarding their highest education level, 25 participants had a high school diploma and 23 had a bachelor's degree.

In the second section, the quantitative data for Research Question 1 were used to examine the listening behaviors that second language adult learners of Spanish use when listening, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys. A statistical analysis was supported with mean, standard deviation, frequencies, and range scores; a scatter plot was analyzed for each item. Participants said in the LSI survey that they are involved listeners, and, in the HURIER survey, they maintained that responding was the listening behavior they use the most.

Research Question 2 examined the possibility of a relationship between listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness. A statistical analysis correlated the two variables and showed that, overall, there was a significant positive relationship in the scores between the two variables from LSI and HURIER. The strongest items correlated were logic or organizational ability [LSI] and remembering [HURIER].

The data from Research Question 3 demonstrated that none of the correlations involving the DLPT5 score was statistically significant, probably because there was such a limited number of different scores achieved by the students. To discover a relationship with other measures, there needs to be greater variation among the DLPT5 scores. With no relationship established, the power and degree of a relationship could not be determined.

In the third section, examining the qualitative data, NVivo 10 was used to compute the results of the students' perspectives about the feedback on listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness. The "top three" feedback responses were (a) to focus on listening is essential for effectiveness; (b) to improve areas that need

improving is a key factor for listening comprehension; and (c) to use techniques and utility skills is necessary when listening.

Chapter 5 includes an overview of the study, related findings of the literature review, related findings of the conceptual framework, and a discussion of findings. These are followed by conclusions, recommendations for future research, and implications of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative descriptive research study was to learn which listening styles and effective listening skills second language adult learners of Spanish use while listening to improve their critical listening effectiveness.

This chapter is divided into four sections. Findings of the literature review and the conceptual framework are presented in the first section, conclusions of the research questions in the second section. Recommendations for the profession and for future research are offered in the third section, and the implications of the study are outlined in the final section.

To answer the research questions, the quantitative method was used; to analyze the students' feedback, the qualitative method was used. The conceptual framework of this study was based on the dual-process theory of persuasion as internal consistency—the need for approval and peace of mind. This theory explains how listeners analyze a message before accepting or rejecting it. Persuasion is linked to active listeners; what active listeners have in common is (a) feeling a connection with the speaker and (b) understanding the message accurately. The characteristics of the dual-process theory are also applicable to critical effectiveness: Interpretation, the observation of social judgments and listening behavior, and the identification of listening in a systematic, organized manner are common components in both persuasion and critical effectiveness. Understanding the theory, as well as listening effectiveness and students' needs, is the first step toward improving the quality of listening comprehension.

Related Findings to the Literature Review and the Conceptual Framework

The results derived from this research relate directly to the literature reviewed and tie in to the top–down model and critical listening through inference. Judy Brownell's research (2013) addressed both critical listening and dependable judgments of content. With regard to this, it is evident that the participants in the study at hand were able to evaluate their own listening effectiveness.

Larson (2010) observed that critical listening is dominated by persuasion; before listeners can accept or reject the message, they must analyze it and be actively involved in their listening, looking for more information. He affirmed the need for critical listening effectiveness in second language practice, and he suggested that the listener's feelings of connectedness to the speaker are the cornerstone of critical listening effectiveness. The students who participated in this research shared Larson's perspective.

In the literature review, it is noted that researchers Aaronson and Scarborough, 1977; Chesebro, 1999; Langer, 1980; and Schifffrin and Schneider, 1977, all concur that listeners use a predominant listening style through which they identify, evaluate, retain information, and understand while listening. All of these elements are part of the HURIER questionnaire used to evaluate students' listening effectiveness.

The data collected related directly to the conceptual framework based on dual–process theory: the elaboration likelihood model, the heuristic–systematic model, and attitude change theory. The goal of the research questions was to clarify the intrinsic properties—the *essence*—of critical listening effectiveness in adult learners in a second language Spanish Program. The most salient finding that emerged was that the listening

behavior of students is related to their (a) being involved in listening and (b) believing they are good listeners.

Dual-process theory provides a theoretical foundation for explaining when and why some variables affect the nature of listening in persuasive communication. Bodie (2009) discusses the ways people are engaged by persuasive messages to accept information. Many of the students in this study, as reflected in their survey answers, agree they are involved in persuasive listening and believe they are good listeners.

According to McCroskey (2005), there is a significant benefit to persuasive messages because critical listening effectiveness is enhanced through a speaker's credibility, trustworthiness, believability and dynamics. Interpreting a HURIER component that serves to “open their [listeners] minds up and actively seek possible meaning” (Boyd, 2005, p. 4).

A heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken and Trope, 1999) is based on attitudes and social judgments that are modes of persuasion through which the listener can respond to, understand, and evaluate the message. HURIER is based on responding, understanding, and evaluating (along with hearing, remembering, and interpreting), which are elements of listening effectiveness.

The elaboration likelihood method, an information-processing theory of persuasion, is based on the idea that when a person is involved and motivated to think about the content of a message, the level of elaboration is high and lasting persuasion more likely. This is the central route to persuasion. When a person is not able or motivated to listen to a message, then elaboration is low, and the receiver will look for peripheral cues to assess the message. This is the peripheral route to persuasion. This

theory reinforces the listening behavior that is considered active listening in the LSI and interpreting in the HURIER. Brownell (2013) asserted that critical listening is a fundamental part of effective persuasion.

Attitude change theory supports listening effectiveness through influencing people's emotions and behavior. Hovland et al. (1953) suggested that the bases for attitude change through persuasion rely on getting attention, comprehending the message, accepting the message, retaining the information, and describing the attitude of the listener. These are the aspects of the theories that support the responses to the HURIER questionnaire.

Conclusions of the Research Questions

Quantitative Conclusions

Research Question 1

Research question 1 asked, "What are the listening behaviors of second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?"

Conclusion 1. The LSI revealed that almost half the participant population—48%—used involved listening (see *Interpretation of the Listening Styles Inventory, Appendix C*) as their behavior when listening to Spanish as a second language (see Table 14). The starting mean score in the study was 38–43. According to the LSI interpretation (Barker et al., 1992), this mean score falls within the average range of 38–44.

Conclusion 2. The LSI showed a high percentage of passive listening (see *Interpretation of the Listening Styles Inventory, Appendix C*), with a behavior score of 46%. The starting mean score in the study was 28, and the highest—37—is the same score that the LSI interpretation (Barker et al., 1992) indicated for passive listening behavior (28–37).

Conclusion 3. The overall HURIER listening survey revealed that students believe they are good listeners (Brownell, 2013). The data met statistical levels of significance (see Table 23); the starting mean score range was between 3.3 and 3.8 from 5 points; *almost always* (see *HURIER Listening Styles Survey, Appendix E*) was the highest score per question in the HURIER questionnaire.

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asked, "Is there a significant positive relationship between scores on listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) among second language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC?"

Conclusion 4. Referencing Table 71, the overall listening styles/effectiveness score of the LSI and the overall listening effectiveness score from the HURIER indicated that there was a statistical level of strong positive relationship between the two variables.

Conclusion 5. Assessing the relationship in listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER) between six independent variables, the following analyses were reported:

1. Hearing: There was a moderate, statistically significant, positive correlation between the overall LSI listening style/effectiveness score and the HURIER hearing score (see Table 65). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the category of hearing when students are listening to Spanish.
2. Understanding: There was a stronger, statistically significant, positive correlation between the overall LSI listening styles/effectiveness score and the HURIER

- understanding score (see Table 66). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the category of understanding when students are listening to Spanish.
3. Remembering: There was a strong, statistically significant, positive correlation between the overall LSI listening styles/effectiveness score and the HURIER remembering score (see Table 67). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the category of remembering when students are listening to Spanish.
 4. Interpreting: There was a strong, statistically significant, positive correlation between the overall LSI listening styles/effectiveness score and the HURIER interpreting score (see Table 68). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the category of interpreting when students are listening to Spanish.
 5. Evaluating: There was a moderate, statistically significant, positive correlation between the overall LSI listening styles/effectiveness score and the HURIER evaluating score (see Table 69). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the HURIER in the category of evaluating when students are listening to Spanish.
 6. Responding: There was a moderate, statistically significant, positive correlation between the LSI overall listening styles/effectiveness score and the HURIER responding score (see Table 70). Therefore, the LSI makes a difference in the category of responding when students are listening to Spanish.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 asked, "Is there a significant positive relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI), listening effectiveness (as measured by the HURIER), and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5) among DLIFLC second language adult learners of Spanish?"

Conclusion 6. Assessing a relationship between listening styles/effectiveness (as measured by the LSI) and listening comprehension scores (as measured by the DLPT5), the results (see Table 74) indicate that there was no significant correlation between the overall of the listening styles/effectiveness and the listening comprehension scores. There are no correlations involved because of the lack of variety of scores.

Conclusion 7. Assessing the relationship between listening effectiveness, as measured by the HURIER, and listening comprehension scores, as measured by the DLPT5 (see Table 75), two weak positive relationships emerged: understanding and responding. Hearing, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and the overall HURIER listening score had no or negligible statistical significance when related to the listening comprehension scores.

Notable Conclusions

Conclusion 8. Scores on the listening styles/effectiveness from LSI, when combined with education and age were not statistically significant (see Table 76).

Conclusion 9. Referencing Table 77, the listening effectiveness score from the HURIER and the variables of education and age indicated that there was a no or negligible relationship between them.

Additional Conclusions

Feedback

Conclusion 10. The key words from the feedback (Figure 36) that reflected the students' thoughts were "listening," "improvement," and "techniques."

Conclusion 11. Forty-four percent of the participants considered the concept "focus attention on" (Figure 37) to be the most valuable information they received from the feedback.

Conclusion 12. Students considered the concept "relaxation" to be the second most valuable in the feedback.

Conclusion 13. Forty-one percent of the participants (Figure 37) believe that focusing on areas that need improvement will help them score better on the listening comprehension portion of the DLPT5.

Conclusion 14. Participants suggested that techniques and utility (Figure 38) are needed when listening.

Recommendations for the Profession

Several recommendations are offered for foreign language instructors and scholars. It is essential that teachers take the time to analyze how students listen. With a greater understanding of the listener's needs for active and critical listening skills, educators will provide active listening support to ensure that each student reaches listening effectiveness. This requires instructors to (a) change how they teach listening and (b) gain a deeper understanding of students' individual needs. Instructors can provide individual plans to support each student's listening skills so that every student reaches listening effectiveness.

This study contributes to the field of critical listening effectiveness by providing a framework for active and critical listening, listening styles/effectiveness, and listening effectiveness. For teachers seeking to positively affect their students' listening effectiveness, this study suggests using the LSI and HURIER questionnaires to verify students' needs and improve their listening comprehension.

This study may help educators of schools and college preparation courses to design programs that meet the listening skill needs of second language students. A key

recommendation is that school administrators implement school programs that focus on active and critical listening effectiveness for second language learners. Integrating second language listening programs into language study courses and workshops may increase listening comprehension. It is recommended that students take the LSI and HURIER in the early stages of such a listening program to verify their weaknesses, make the necessary changes in their listening behaviors, and improve their comprehension skills, thus making the fullest use of and deriving the greatest benefit from the program.

Recommendation for Future Research

The study was limited to a convenience sample of 52 adult second language learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC during November 2013 and January 2014. It is recommended to increase the sample size in future studies so that a greater number of students can improve their listening comprehension.

The participants of this study were predominantly Caucasians. Future studies may consider other ethnicities that were not fully represented in this study, such as African-Americans and Hispanics, to analyze if results would remain the same with other cultures.

According to the HURIER questionnaire, all students who participated in this study believe they are good listeners. As a follow-up to this study, it would be interesting to assess other groups of foreign language students using the HURIER and verify if they, too, believe they are good listeners.

This study focused on specific factors associated with listening effectiveness: hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating, and responding. Three

new themes emerged from the students' feedback: relaxation, techniques, and utility. These factors could be useful in determining listening effectiveness in a foreign language class.

Future researchers should consider conducting a purely qualitative study to identify additional factors that could influence listening effectiveness among adult students. The data gained from the study were primarily derived from the quantitative analysis, which confined participants to closed-ended questions. The qualitative part was based on the students' point of view regarding the feedback on their listening styles and listening effectiveness, wherein participants were allowed to elaborate on questions, thus identifying new factors that can contribute to listening effectiveness. Conducting only a qualitative study with a larger population may introduce additional knowledge about the population being studied and the factors that influence their listening comprehension.

Implications of the Study

The findings of this study may help meet the listening styles/effectiveness needs that students have for increasing listening comprehension as adult learners. The skill of listening is of universal importance. Listening is an inherent necessity for learning *anything*; thus, the information gained from this study can be of benefit not only to second language learners but to learners of any subject. Study results indicated that participants think they are good listeners, close to being excellent listeners reaching optimum effectiveness. Insights into study findings also revealed the strong relationship between listening styles/effectiveness and listening effectiveness. These insights could be used for interdisciplinary teaching to (a) enhance listening effectiveness, (b) increase students' listening confidence, and (c) motivate students to speak foreign languages.

School staff can offer listening effectiveness programs to support students in their listening comprehension classes and inspire them to improve their listening quality. Instructors can offer programs that promote peer-to-peer mentor, and role-model listening effectiveness between students and teachers. Teachers can be trained how to teach listening more effectively to students. Trainings should focus on building stronger critical listening skills through assessing and identifying each student's individual needs. Education of teachers could occur through professional development workshops; training materials could be produced as instructional tools; workshops could be conducted for students.

Findings from this study indicate that, according to the HURIER, students had a moderate, statistically significant, positive correlation in hearing, evaluating, and responding. Language students and course instructors may wish to focus on these skills to better their listening skills and achieve greater success in their overall learning experience. "The effectiveness of the speaker's message or response relates directly to how well the individual listens" (Brownell, 2010, p. 144). Ralph Nichols, the father of listening, said, "The most basic of all human needs is the need to understand and be understood. The best way to understand people is to listen to them" (ILA convention, 1980). And, as ancient Greek philosopher Epictetus observed, "We have two ears and one mouth so that we can listen twice as much as we speak."

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Demographic Profile

APPENDIX A: Demographic Profile

Please respond and complete this profile. The purpose of these questions is to describe the population who completes the surveys. Answer the questions either by checking the appropriate response or by filling in the blanks provided.

1. Name _____

2. Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. Age group: ☐ Under 21 ☐ 21–30

☐ 31–40 ☐ 41–50 ☐ 51+

4. How do you classify yourself:

☐ Caucasian ☐ African–American ☐ Native–American

☐ Hispanic ☐ Asian ☐ Other _____

5. Native language you grew up speaking _____

6. Do you speak any additional languages other than your native tongue and English? What other language(s) do you speak?

7. Education (highest level completed):

☐ High school ☐ Associate's degree

☐ College baccalaureate ☐ Master's degree

APPENDIX B

Listening Styles Inventory (LSI)

APPENDIX B: Listening Styles Inventory (LSI)

Name _____ Date _____

This instrument is designed to measure your listening style, which is the process a person utilizes when listening. When reading each statement to yourself, insert each of the adverbs after “I” in the statement to see which of the adverbs fits you best. Then, circle the appropriate response.

1. I want to listen to what others have to say when they are talking.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

2. I do not listen attentively when others are talking.

1. Almost Always 2. Often 3. Sometimes 4. Seldom 5. Almost Never

3. By listening, I can guess a speaker’s intent or purpose without being told.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

4. I have a purpose for listening when others are talking.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

5. I keep control of my biases and attitudes when listening to others speak so that these factors won’t affect my interpretation of the message.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

6. I analyze my listening errors so as not to make them again.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

7. I listen to the complete message before making judgments about what the speaker has said.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

8. I cannot tell when a speaker’s biases or attitudes are affecting his or her message.

1. Almost Always 2. Often 3. Sometimes 4. Seldom 5. Almost Never

9. I ask questions when I don’t fully understand a speaker’s message.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

10. I am aware of whether or not a speaker's meaning of words and concepts is the same as mine.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

APPENDIX C

Interpretation of the Listening Styles Inventory

APPENDIX C: Interpretation of the Listening Styles Inventory

Active (45–50)

The active listener gives full attention to listening when others are talking and focuses on what is being said. This person expends a lot of energy participating in the speaking–listening exchange, which is usually evidenced by an alert posture or stance and much direct eye contact.

Involved (38–44)

The involved listener gives most of his or her attention to the speaker's words and intentions. This person reflects on the message to a degree and participates in the speaking–listening exchange. The involved listener practices some direct eye contact and may have alert posture or stance, although this may be intermittent.

Passive (28–37)

The passive listener receives information as though being talked to rather than as being an equal partner in the speaking–listening exchange. While assuming that the responsibility for the success of the communication is the speaker's, this listener is usually attentive, although attention may be faked at times. The passive listener seldom expends any noticeable energy in receiving and interpreting messages.

Detached (0–27)

The detached listener withdraws from the speaking–listening exchange and becomes the object of the speaker's message rather than its receiver. The detached listener is usually inattentive, disinterested, and may be restless, bored, or easily distracted. This person's noticeable lack of enthusiasm may be marked by slumped or very relaxed posture and avoidance of direct eye contact.

Please Note: The listening inventory gives a general idea of preferred listening style, how people view themselves. The scores indicating styles are approximations and should be regarded as such. People may change listening style when responding to a given

situation or their interests, intentions, or objectives. Such factors may be either internally or externally derived.

Note: The questionnaire has two questions that are reversely ordered. What that means is that all questions are graded on a scale of 5 (almost always) to 1 (almost never) except for questions 2 and 8, which are graded just the opposite—on a scale of 1 (almost always) to 5 (almost never). The number is assigned to each of the 10 questions depending on the choice selected: 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1. The individual score is simply added up, for a total of 50 points. The total points that someone scores is compared with the interpretation of the LSI that describes a preferred listening style.


APPENDIX D

Permission to Use the Listening Styles Inventory


APPENDIX D: Permission to Use the Listening Styles Inventory

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Page 1 of 1


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Journal of business and technical communication : JBTC
ISSN: 1050-6519 **Language:** English
Publication year(s): 1988 - present **Country of publication:** United States of America
Author/Editor: IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
Publication type: Journal
Publisher: SAGE PUBLICATIONS, INC.
Rightsholder: SAGE PUBLICATIONS INC. JOURNALS
Permission type selected: Republish or display content
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Article title: Assessment of the Listening Styles Inventory: Progress in Establishing Reliability and Validity
Author(s): Pearce, C. G. ; Johnson, I. W. ; Barker, R. T.
DOI: 10.1177/1050651902238546
Date: Jan 1, 2003
Volume: 17
Issue: 1
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2/18/2013

APPENDIX E
HURIER Listening Survey

APPENDIX E: HURIER Listening Survey

Name _____ Date _____

Respond to each of the following questions concerning *your perception* of your listening comprehension, which is how well you understand a speaker's message. Keep in mind that you are a DLIFLC foreign language student and you are listening to a Spanish audio clip in class on the presidential elections in Venezuela. Answer all questions with that situation in mind. This will help you be more consistent in your responses.

1. When you listen to a Spanish audio clip, are you aware that the speaker adapts his or her performance according to the situation?

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

2. I take into account the speakers' personal and cultural perspective when listening to them during the Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

3. I pay attention to the most relevant information when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

4. I listen carefully to a Spanish audio clip and I am able to repeat what I hear verbatim.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

5. When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class, I understand the speaker's vocabulary and recognize that my understanding of words is likely to be somewhat different from the speaker's understanding.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

6. When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class and the instructor asks me a question about the content, I reply based on what I have understood.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

7. I easily remember a Spanish audio clip in class and can accurately recall which speakers participated in the interaction.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

8. When I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class, I consider the speaker's personal expertise on the topic when he or she expresses a point of view.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

9. I do not let my emotions interfere with my listening or decision making when I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

10. I remember what the speaker said when I listen to a Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

11. I recognize my "hot buttons" and don't let them influence my listening during an audio clip in my Spanish class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

12. I take into account the speaker's motives, expectations, and needs when determining the meaning of the message from a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

13. I provide clear and direct comments to others when they ask me questions about the Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

14. I can infer the speaker's meaning in a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

15. I overcome distractions such as the conversation of others, background noises when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

16. I listen to a Spanish audio clip with a positive attitude.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

17. I am sensitive to the speaker's tone of voice when listening to a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

18. I accurately remember what the speaker says in a Spanish audio clip even when disagreeing with his/her viewpoint.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

19. I encourage information sharing among fellow students by creating a climate of trust and support whenever talking about a Spanish audio clip that I heard in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

20. I concentrate on what the speaker says during a Spanish audio clip, even when the information is complicated.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

21. I understand the spoken message in class while listening to a Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

22. I weigh all the speaker's pieces of evidence before making judgments about a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

23. I take time to analyze the validity of the speaker's reasoning during the Spanish audio clip in class before arriving at my own conclusions.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

24. I am relaxed and focused in important communication situations during a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

25. I listen to an entire Spanish audio clip during class without letting myself get distracted.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

26. I make sure that the physical environment in class encourages effective listening during Spanish audio clips.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

27. I can recognize and take into account personal and cultural differences from the speaker in the use of time and space that may influence listening effectiveness while listening to a Spanish audio clip in class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

28. I ask other listeners relevant questions and restate my perceptions to make sure I have understood the Spanish audio clip correctly.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

29. I listen carefully to determine whether a speaker who is in the Spanish audio clip has solid facts and evidence or whether he/she is relying on emotional appeals.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

30. I am sensitive to the speaker's feelings during the Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

31. I have a wide variety of interests when listening, which helps me remember the main points in a Spanish audio clip during class.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

32. I distinguish between main ideas and supporting evidence when I watch and listen to a Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

33. I am ready to focus my attention when a speaker begins to talk in a Spanish audio clip.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

34. When listening to a Spanish audio clip in class, I willingly consider new evidence and circumstances that might prompt me to reevaluate my previous point of view.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

35. I can remember what I have heard in a Spanish audio clip, even when I am in stressful situations.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

36. I stay focused on the main idea when I listen to a Spanish audio clip in class. It helps me to concentrate.

5. Almost Always 4. Often 3. Sometimes 2. Seldom 1. Almost Never

APPENDIX F

Guide to Access the HURIER Listening Survey

APPENDIX F: Guide to Access the HURIER Listening Survey

Hearing	Understanding	Remembering
4 _____	5 _____	3 _____
15 _____	11 _____	7 _____
16 _____	25 _____	10 _____
20 _____	28 _____	18 _____
24 _____	32 _____	31 _____
33 _____	36 _____	35 _____
Total _____	Total _____	Total _____

Interpreting	Evaluating	Responding
2 _____	1 _____	6 _____
12 _____	8 _____	9 _____
14 _____	22 _____	13 _____
17 _____	23 _____	19 _____
21 _____	29 _____	26 _____
30 _____	34 _____	27 _____
Total _____	Total _____	Total _____

Points

25–30 points: Excellent listener

20–25 points: Good listener

15–20 points: Listening skills adequate

10–15 points: Some problems in listening behavior

APPENDIX G

Permission to Use the HURIER Listening Survey

APPENDIX G: Permission to Use the HURIER Listening Survey

Tanya,

You have my permission to use my HURIER listening survey for your dissertation study. I ask that you credit the source of the survey as appropriate to your academic work.

Best wishes,

Judi Brownell, PhD
Professor of Organizational Communication
School of Hotel Administration
Cornell University

APPENDIX H

Consent to Participate in Research

APPENDIX H: Consent to Participate in Research

Tanya de Hoyos

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Presidio of Monterey

Monterey, CA 93940

Research: Critical Listening Effectiveness in Adult Learners in a
Second Language Spanish Program

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Introductory Section:

A study entitled *Critical Listening Effectiveness in Adult Learners in a Second Language Spanish Program* is being conducted by Tanya de Hoyos, who is a doctoral student in the Department of Education at Argosy University—San Francisco Bay Area. She is conducting this study for her dissertation as part of the requirements for her doctoral degree. You are invited to participate in this study. Before you decide whether or not to participate in the study, you should read this document and ask questions if there is anything that you do not understand.

Description of the Project:

The purpose of this study will be to learn the listening styles and listening effective skills that second language adult learners of Spanish utilize when listening. Secondly, the study will determine the relationship between scores on listening style/effectiveness (LSI) and listening effectiveness (HURIER). Thirdly, the research will aim to examine the relationship between scores on the DLPT5, a lower-range listening comprehension test, the LSI and the HURIER. The desire to listen effectively could motivate military linguists to listen very actively. They can identify their need to comprehend the complete spoken message, interpret it correctly and take actions if necessary to improve their listening skills.

What you will do in the Study:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete a Listening Styles Inventory (LSI), which will help define your listening style/effectiveness and a HURIER survey which focuses on listening effectiveness and the interaction between the listening process and the context in which communication occurs.

Time Required:

Completing the LSI survey and the HURIER survey will take 35 minutes.

Risks or Discomfort:

There are no anticipated risks associated with participating in this study.

Benefits of this Study:

You will receive feedback on the LSI and HURIER surveys a week later after that will help you to diagnose your listening style and effectiveness and focus on needed improvements that may facilitate future mission performance.

Confidentiality:

The information that you give in the study will be handled confidentially. No individual identities will be revealed in any reports or publications resulting from the study. Confidentiality may be broken in the case of a court subpoena or other legal actions allowed under the law.

To protect your anonymity, your responses will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this code will be kept in a locked file. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records. All the data will be destroyed and shredded five years after the completion of the study.

Decision to quit at any time:

Your decision to participate or not in this study is completely voluntary and will not affect your grades or your current or future status as a student at DLIFLC. If you decide to participate, you may refuse to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. During the study, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty of any kind.

Rights and Complaints:

If you have any questions about this research, please contact Tanya de Hoyos at (831) 242-5851 or tanya.dehoyos@dliflc.edu. You may also contact my research supervisor, Dr. Scott Griffith, who can be reached at Argosy University at (510) 217-4700 or slgriffith@argosy.edu. Please note that this study has been approved by DLIFLC, and it has been reviewed and certified by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), Argosy University—San Francisco Bay Area. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the Argosy University IRB at (510) 217-4700 or the head of DLIFLC's IRB, Dr. Jeff Crowson at (831) 242-3788.

You have the right to obtain a summary of the results of this study if you wish to have them. You may obtain the summary by contacting Tanya de Hoyos at (831) 242-5851 or tanya.dehoyos@dliflc.edu.

Participant Consent:

I have read and understood the explanation provided to me above. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have initialed below those parts of the study in which I agree to participate, and I have filled in the rest of the form with my name and today's date.

- _____ I agree to complete the demographic profile.
- _____ I agree to complete the LSI survey.
- _____ I agree to complete the HURIER listening survey.
- _____ I agree to receive feedback.

Name of Participant (print)

Signature of Participant

Date

APPENDIX I

Listening Styles and Listening Effectiveness Feedback Questionnaire

APPENDIX I: Listening Styles and Listening Effectiveness Feedback Questionnaire

Name _____ Date _____

Please complete the following questionnaire to the best of your ability. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out whether the feedback on your listening style and effectiveness was valuable.

1. Did you find the information that you received about your listening style and listening effectiveness to be valuable? If so, in what way?

2. Do you think that your participation in these surveys (the LSI and the HURIER) and the feedback that you received will help you improve your listening comprehension on the listening portion of the DLPT5? Please explain.

3. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the feedback on listening style and listening effectiveness?

Thank you for your participation!
Tanya de Hoyos